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# The Pronunciation of Standard English in America 

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## PREFACE

Whether one thinks this should or should not be so, it is a fact that most cultivated persons in America nowadays, and an increasing number in England, are more or less self-conscious about their speech. The present very general interest in the practical applications of the science of phonetics is one of the proofs of the truth of this statement. With our strange mingling of races, our widely separated but rapidly inter-communicating local units of population, our constantly shifting social boundaries between class and class, it is inevitable that, in America at least, such should be the case.

When people become conscious of so familiar an activity as speech, it means that changes are taking place in it. The universal possession of all persons in the land, the rich and the poor, the learned and the unlearned, of farmer, artisan, laborer and merchant, speech is not only the great social solvent which makes the nation one, but also the readiest test by which such differences as exist are measured and known. And where these differences and distinctions arise out of a rapidly developing civilization, as in America, it is often extremely hard to determine their value. If we had but a single standard of speech, universally accepted and practiced, the task undertaken in this book would be easy, though obviously it would be unnecessary. But we have no standard beyond opinion, which in a democratic society must alwars be many-headed. If therefore in the following peges the
author has been at times less dogmatic than some of his readers think he should have been, his plea is that where there is a diversity of opinion and practice among reasonable people, there must be also an equally broad charity in judgment. Could anything be more absurd than to stigmatize as incorrect a pronunciation which is actually in general use, to put down in a dictionary only one pronunciation of a word when several are current among cultivated speakers? All cultivated speakers do not speak alike in America. If we think they should, that is a theory hard to enforce by compelling one group to yield to another. To be sure, opinion may be well-informed or ill-informed, and genuine blunders are usually due to lack of information, not to perversity. It is the purpose of this book to provide a rational method of examining pronunciation, the most important of the practical aspects of speech, in order that those who have a conscience in the matter may exercise it with justice both to themselves and to others.
The materials of the book have been ordered under the several sounds of the language. To one experienced in phonetics, no other plan would seem possible, and though perhaps at first embarrassed by an unfamiliar method, the untrained student will in the end find this the most profitable way of approach to the subject. The important thing is to acquire skill in hearing sounds as sounds, to be able to think of them as sounds apart from their representation in conventional spelling. The market is plentifully provided with dictionaries, with alphabetical lists of words said to be frequently mispronounced. The information contained in these books may or may not be trustworthy, but the best of them can offer little help to the student who wishes to observe the
facts for himself and to arrive at his own judgments. And even the fullest of these lists cannot possibly be complete or contemporary. Pronunciation changes day by day, and dictionaries soon become antiquated. The intelligent person is one who makes his own dictionary as he goes along. The author's intention has not been, therefore, to provide exhaustive lists of words which may be mispronounced, but to show how the whole subject should be approached. Such words as are treated, however, will be found in alphabetical order in the index at the end of the book.

Wherever a question of choice between two pronunciations arises, there is rarely any difficulty in making a choice after the facts are once known. It is the province of a book like this to show students how they may become sure of their facts, not to make their choices for them. The author has endeavored, however, not to make trouble where there really is none. It would have been easy to swell the number of 'mis-pronunciations' by culling from the lists of books of the twenty-thousand-words-often-mispronounced kind. But most of the words recorded in such books are not mispronunciations. They are merely rare and learned words which few persons ever have any occasion to pronounce. A word can be said to have acquired a pronunciation in the English language only when it is current on the lips of Englishspeaking people. Otherwise it is an eye-word, without an established phonetic value. The instances discussed in the present volume are such as the author himself has observed. None are taken at second hand from books. Though they may not correspond to every other person's particular observations and special difficulties in pronunciation, what they may lack in inclusiveness will
perhaps be compensated for by the fact that they are neither traditional survivals from books nor fanciful dilemmas of a theorist, but genuine records of present speech in America.

The professional student of phonetics seems to find it hard to resist the fascination which the game of inventing symbols exerts. The conventional alphabet is obviously inadequate for any scientific purposes, and scores of phonetic alphabets have been invented to take its place. If a phonetic alphabet is an evil, it is a necessary evil. But moderation should be practiced in the exercise of this evil, for once started, there is obviously no limit to the number of symbols one may devise as records of his observations. It may be said, moreover, that in the end not even the most elaborate phonetic alphabet can record all the shadings and nuances of speech sounds current daily in good use. For one seeking absolute completeness and precision, some device, richer in possibilities than an alphabet must be discovered.

In this book neither absolute precision nor a very high degree of precision in the notation of sounds has been attempted. The author's aim having been not to elaborate, but to simplify as much as possible, it may occasionally be felt that certain sounds have gone unrecorded. Thus the alphabet employed provides symbols for only two pronunciations of the vowel in got, hot, not, etc., that is the short of the vowels which appear in the first syllables of father and author. Perhaps a third intermediary sound should have been recorded, representing a vowel approximately with the same tongue position as the vowel of father, but with slight rounding of the lips. Likewise the two vowels of a word like city are not quite the same, though they have been indicated in the
present volume by the same phonetic symbol. Yet again, the initial consonants in pairs of words like haul and heel, gone and geese, call and keel are acoustically different and are organically formed in different ways. The quality of the consonant, in these instances, is dependent upon the vowel by which it is followed. In a word like city, the second vowel may be said to be an unstressed variant of the first. And whenever it is possible to take account of sound variations in this way by means of a general explanatory statement, the author has chosen to do this in preference to adding to the number of symbols. Where one has several relatively slight variations in pronunciation, as in the pronunciation of not, hot, got, etc., the author has again preferred to indicate what might be called the extremes of tendency by means of phonetic symbols, filling in the modifications between these extremes by means of a descriptive statement. No introductory work on phonetics can read like an algebraic formula, or if it did, no one would read it.

Perhaps a word of explanation, if not of apology, is needed for the use of the word American as signifying the United States. In this the author is merely following general usage and does not mean to imply that the English of Canada either is or should be like the English of the United States. Canada is fortunate in having the adjective Canadian, but we have no adjective form for the United States. If we seem to be appropriating a general term for a specific meaning, we would point out that such is not the case, for American has practically ceased to be a general term. By this same warrant of usage, the term English has been applied to the speech of America, just as it must be applied to every country where the English language is spoken. If a more exact
limitation of the general term is required, we must speak of American English, of British English, of Canadian English, of any of the half dozen varieties of English that have established for themselves local homes upon the face of the globe.

Geographical limitations in American speech, especially American standard speech, are extremely difficult to determine with precision, and in this book have been indicated only in the most general terms. The reason for this is that American cultivated speech is extraordinarily mixed. Relatively few Americans spend all their lives in one locality, and even if they do, they cannot possibly escape coming into contact with Americans from other localities. The result is that a 'pure dialect,' if any such thing ever does exist, must be sought elsewhere than in our much-traveling and very adaptable cultivated and educated classes. The universal negative is the last form of dogmatism upon which the careful student of American speech will insist. It is safer to indulge in a universal affirmative, to say that any pronunciation which may occur in cultivated speech, may occur in any region of America. For several large divisions, especially in the speech of the more obviously typical local representatives, we have a fairly defined feeling. We can distinguish with some certainty Eastern and Western and Southern speech, but beyond this the author has little confidence in those confident experts who think they can tell infallibly, by the test of speech, a native of Hartford from a native of Providence, or a native of Philadelphia from a native of Atlanta, or even, if one insist on infallibility, a native of Chicago from a native of Boston. This means of course that geographical distinctions are not of prime importance in the discussion of standard

American speech. Cultivated Americans do not all speak alike, but on the other hand, they do not move in mutually exclusive and self-centered circles in their habits of speech. Holmes insists, in the Autocrat, that the accent of a word may tell you all you want to know about the origin and possibilities of a person. Perhaps it may, but it is well to remember that such judgments are likely to place the placer quite as inescapably as they do his victim.

The term standard speech, it will thus be seen, has been used by the author without a very exact definition. Everybody knows that there is no type of speech uniform and accepted in practice by all persons in America. What the author has called standard may perhaps be best defined negatively, as the speech which is least likely to attract attention to itself as being peculiar to any class or locality. As a matter of fact, speech does not often attract notice to itself unless it is markedly peculiar. For the most part when one is listening to the speech of others, one is intent upon getting the meaning, not upon observing the form. In consequence there is likely to be, even in what we may justly call standard speech, a considerable area of negligible variation, negligible, that is, from the point of view of the practical use of language. To the conscientious and critical listener, many of these variations may seem reprehensible, but only so by the test of some theoretical or ideal standard. In the following pages, wherever the author has put down a form or several forms of speech without defining them as provincial, or dialectal, or vulgar, or artificial, he would have the usages taken as being, in his opinion, standard, and if two or more differing standard pronunciations are given, the implication intended is that a speaker is as likely to offend
as many critical listeners by using one as by using another of the pronunciations.

Perhaps it is not necessary to say that this book has not been prepared for the purpose of showing the difference between American and British pronunciation, or of proving that either one of these is better than the other. Whenever reference has been made to British pronunciation, the comparison has been made in order to indicate more definitely the facts of American pronunciation. The concern of the book is above all with these facts, and as it cannot well be denied that we have an attained result in the pronunciation of English in America, it would seem that our first obligation is to become aware of the facts, to recognize their existence just as we recognize the existence of our other distinctive social institutions. On the basis of such knowledge, one may at least intelligently proceed to the building of theories for the improvement of American speech, if one is so moved. Yet it seems scarcely credible that one who knows the facts should think it possible to impose British standards upon American speech, or to do anything but ally himself to the best tendencies, as each observer sympathetically views them, of our native American pronunciation.

An important section of the book, to which it is suggested that the student give very special attention, is that at the conclusion, consisting of passages in phonetic transcription. These should be carefully studied in detail, and every student should make similar transcriptions, based upon his observations. The first five transcriptions here presented as examples are representations of standard pronunciation, as observed and recorded by the author himself. Passages six to twelve are records of the pronunciation of several individuals taken down for this
book. They represent varieties of standard pronunciation, the intention being that they should be indicative but not exhaustive of the great number of current forms of standard speech. Passages thirteen to sixteen are phonetic transcriptions of literary records of American dialect speech, and they have been included to afford material for the comparison of standard with dialect speech. Finally passages seventeen to nineteen may be used for a comparative study of British and American speech. In England as in America differing opinions are held on the question of standard speech, though both scholars and general public seem pretty well agreed that Southern British has greater right to be regarded as standard than any other form of British speech. Northern British, however, stands a good deal closer to American English than does Southern British. In fact it is only rather extreme forms of Southern British which seem markedly different from American speech.

For permission to reproduce the passage from Jane Eyre, the author acknowledges his obligations to $\mathbf{M r}$. Daniel Jones, Reader in Phonetics in the University of London. A similar obligation extends to other writers who have permitted him to make phonetic transcriptions of passages from their published works, and a greater to those persons who have submitted to his inquisitions and who have sacrificed time and convenience to enable him to make phonetic transcriptions of their pronunciation. Thanks are due to Professor H. M. Ayres for aid with the proof, and Mr. William Tilly who helpfully criticized some of the opening sections of the book. The author is indebted also to the members of various classes before which he has lectured in the Summer Session as well as in the regular sessions of Columbia University. If one
cannot travel everywhere in America, the next best substitute is to be seated at a great city university like Columbia, whither students come from every nook and cranny of the country, eager to impart as well as to receive information.

Columbia University May, 1918.

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## SYMBOLS

## VOWELS

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Stueol \& Ker \& Teanscaiption <br>
\hline [a] \& not \& [nat] <br>
\hline [ $\mathrm{ar}^{\text {] }}$ \& father \&  <br>
\hline [ai] \& fast \& [faist] <br>
\hline [æ] \& hat \& [hæt] <br>
\hline [e], [e-], [et] \& vacation \& [ve'ke.Son] <br>
\hline \& late \& [leat] <br>
\hline [ 8 ] \& get \& [get] <br>
\hline [ $\varepsilon_{1}$ ] \& there \&  <br>
\hline [ə] \& about \& [ $\mathrm{s}^{\prime} \mathrm{bavt}$ ] <br>
\hline [อ] \& bird \& [bead] <br>
\hline [i], [i.], [i:] \& expediency \& [Eks'pidiənsı] <br>
\hline \& freedom \& ['fri dəm] <br>
\hline \& free \& [fris] <br>
\hline [ 1 ] \& sit \& [sit] <br>
\hline [0], [0.], [0:] \& locomotive note \& ['lokə'mo.trv] [no:t] <br>
\hline [0] \& auditory \& ['odr`torı] <br>
\hline [ग] \& law \& [lo:] <br>

\hline [ $\mathbf{u}$ ], [ $\mathbf{u s}_{1}$ ] \& altruistic true \& | [æltru'istik] |
| :--- |
| [tru:] | <br>

\hline [0] \& bush \& [bus] <br>
\hline [ $\triangle$ ] \& but \& [bıt] <br>
\hline [ 41 ] \& hurt \& [hatt] <br>
\hline \& xiv \& <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}

## DIPHTHONGS

| Smmbol | Kry | Transcription | Symbol | Ker | Tran |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [eI] | play | [pler] | [av] | house | [haus] |
| [ar] | ride | [raid] | [эI] | boil | [borl] |
| [00] | go | [gou] | [ju] | mute | [mjut] |

## CONSONANTS

| Srmbol | Kiv T | Transcription | Symbol | Key T | Tranbchiption |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [b] | $b i b$ | [brb] | [I] | first | [forst] |
| [d] | did | [dId] | [s] | best | [best] |
| [g] | gig | [gIg] | [z] | rise | [raIz] |
| [h] | house | [hous] | [S] | wish | [wIS] |
| [j] | yawl | [jo:l] | [3] | pleasure | ['plezer] |
| [k] | king | [kin] | [t] | talk | [tosk] |
| [1] | land | [lænd] | [ $\theta$ ] | thing | [ $\theta \mathrm{II}$ ] |
| [m] | man | [mæn] | [ $\%$ ] | that | [రæt] |
| [ n ] | not, knot | $t$ [nat] | [f] | stiff | [strf] |
| [ $]$ ] | sing | [sin] | [v] | drive | [drarv] |
| [p] | tap | [tæp] | [w] | wet | [wet] |
| [r] | very | [veri] | [M] | whet | [MEt] |

: after a sound indicates a long sound, as in father ['fa: ${ }^{\circ} \boldsymbol{\imath}$ ], [jatl].

- after a sound indicates a half-long sound, as in vacation [ve'ke- Son].
- indicates a full or main stress on the following syllable, as in about [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'baut].
- indicates a secondary or half stress on the following syllable, as in bookshelf ['buk'Self].


## I

## THE MECHANISM OF SPEECH

1. Before it is possible to discuss intelligently or intelligibly the sounds of any speech, it is necessary to know by just what activities of the speech organs the sounds are formed, and to have some means of symbolizing the several sounds with approximate precision, that is, a phonetic alphabet. In this book all phonetic representations of sounds will be enclosed within square brackets and will immediately follow the conventional spelling when the two are employed together. The phonetic alphabet is that of the International Phonetic Association, with several slight modifications.
2. Though there is a very high degree of similarity in the way in which different persons form the various sounds of speech, all speakers do not necessarily produce what seems to be acoustically the same sound by exactly the same formations of the organs of speech. The prime reason for this is that the physical equipment, for example the number and arrangement of teeth or the angle of the jaws, is not the same in all persons. An experimental method, applied by each person upon himself, is therefore a necessity in the study of speech. In the end all organic analysis of speech must be an analysis of individual speech, and one must always make a certain amount of allowance for personal peculiarities, both in one's own speech and in that of others. Extended observation,
however, enables one to make generalizations which hold for a very considerable majority of cases.
3. All speech sounds in English are made by air as it is expelled through the confining walls of the larynx, the mouth and the nose, the specific character of the sound being determined in each case by the special organ or group of organs which function most actively in shaping or obstructing the air passage. English has no indrawing sounds in articulate speech.
4. When all the speech organs are relaxed and the breath is allowed to issue without any constraint, it normally produces no sound, though it may sometimes be heard as breathing or 'heavy breathing,' especially when one breathes with the mouth open or when the nasal passages are abnormally obstructed. When the lips are closed and the breath is expelled forcibly through the nose, it produces the familiar sniff of scorn or contempt, which is of course not an articulate speech sound. Articulate speech sounds are only those sounds which are articulated, or joined, to other sounds in the formation of sound groups or words. The articulate speech sounds of one language are not the same as those of another. French and English, for example, have some sounds which are alike, but in the main, each has its own system of sounds, specially selected from the practically limitless number of sounds which the human organs of speech are capable of producing.
5. Voiced and Voiceless Sounds. When the rift between the vocal chords is so narrowed by the muscles which control the tightening and loosing of the chords that the air from the lungs as it is driven through this rift, known
as the glottis, sets the edges of the chords into vibration, the result is what is technically known as Voice or Voiced sounds (sometimes called Sonants). When the air issuing from the lungs produces a sound without setting the vocal chords in vibration, the sound is Voiceless (also called Breathed or Surd). The difference between voiced and voiceless sounds is plainly audible to the observing ear, and may be further tested by placing the finger on the Adam's apple, when the vibrations will be distinctly felt in the case of the voiced sounds. In testing consonants in this way, the consonant proper should be distinguished from the vowel that accompanies it in the conventional names of the letters of the alphabet. All vowels are voiced, but some consonants are accompanied by voice, e.g., $b[b]$ in be, $d[d]$ in do, $g$ [g] in go, th [ $\delta$ ] in father, $\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{s}[\mathrm{z}]$ in prize, rise, while others are voiceless, e.g., $p[p]$ in pay, $t[t]$ in tea, $k[k]$ in key, th $[\theta]$ in thin, $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{s}[\mathrm{s}]$ in rice, sing. Voiced and voiceless consonants usually go in pairs, that is, [b] represents a voiced sound of which [ p ] is the voiceless equivalent; so also [d] is voiced, $[\mathrm{t}]$ is voiceless; $[\mathrm{g}]$ is voiced, $[\mathrm{k}]$ is voiceless; [ v$]$ is voiced, [f] is voiceless; the medial consonant of pleasure ['plezor] is voiced, and its voiceless equivalent is the final consonant of wish [wI]]; th is voiced [ $\delta$ ] in then, but voiceless $[\theta]$ in thin. It is advisable for students to train themselves carefully in observing the difference between voiced and voiceless sounds so that the distinction becomes immediately clear with reference to any particular sound as soon as it is heard.
6. Consonants are often written in the conventional spelling with the symbol which ordinarily represents a voiced sound, but the sounds so written are pronounced
voiceless when they are assimilated to other voiceless sounds in their vicinity, as the final consonant in walked [wo:kt], stripped [stript]; or they are written with the symbol for a voiceless consonant which is assimilated to a neighboring voiced sound, as in eggs [egz]; paths [pa:ठัz]; tags [tægz] as compared with tacks [tæks]; gooseberry ['gu:z'beri], in which [s] of goose becomes [z] by assimilation to the voiced consonant [b].
7. Frequently also a consonant which is under a stress and voiceless, becomes voiced when not under the stress, as in exhibition ['eksi'brjən], but exhibit [ $\mathrm{Eg}^{\prime}$ zIbrt]. It may be stated as a general rule that stress tends to preserve voiceless consonants as such, but lack of stress, or relatively light stress, tends to permit them to become voiced. This applies not only to stress within the word, but also to stress in the word group or phrase. Thus of is usually a lightly stressed word in its group, e.g., a man of ability, and its phonetic value is [əv], as in [a 'mæn әv $\partial^{\prime}$ biliti]. The adverb off [off] is etymologically the same word, but is stressed and consequently retains its voiceless consonant, as in it fell off [rt 'fel 'off].
8. The symbol $\mathbf{x}$ of the ordinary spelling represents a double consonant sound [ks] as in tax [tæks]; j, \{also sometimes g, represents [d3] as in jug [d3ng], gem [d3em]; ch stands for [ t 5$]$ as in chin [tfin]. On the other hand, two symbols are used in the ordinary spelling for $[\delta][\theta]$, as in then [ $\delta \varepsilon n]$, thin $[\theta \mathrm{in}]$, where the consonant is but a simple sound. The spelling q followed by $\mathbf{u}$ stands for [kw] as in quick [kwik].
9. The Mouth. Besides the vocal chords, the organs most actively concerned in the production of speech
sounds are the tongue, the palate, the teeth, the gums (alveoli), the lips and the nose. The tongue, an extremely flexible combination of muscles, may be moved as a whole, and at the same time one part of it is commonly much more active than the rest. It is necessary to distinguish at least four main surface regions of the tongue, the back, which we may observe as being elevated to form the stoppage producing the initial consonant, a voiceless stop consonant, in call [korl]; the front (sometimes also called the middle) which is the region immediately in front of the back and which may be observed as forming the stoppage producing the voiceless stop consonant in kill [kIl]; the blade of the tongue, which is the surface just forward of the front, readily observed as functioning in the production of the vowel sound of seat [sitt]; and finally the point or tip of the tongue, which plays the most considerable part in the production of the sound of $\mathbf{d}[\mathrm{d}], \mathrm{t}[\mathrm{t}]$, th $[\theta][\mathrm{\delta}]$. In the analysis of some of the vowels, it is necessary to divide further the surface regions of the tongue between front and back. The term half-front means a position between front and back but nearer front than back, and half-back means a position between the two but nearer back than front.
10. The vertical position of the tongue as a whole may also be varied, and it is important to distinguish at least three vertical positions, high, mid and low. When the tongue is in high position, the body of it is raised so that it is felt along the roof of the mouth and against the upper teeth, as in the vowel of he [hit]; when it is in the mid position, as in the stressed vowel of fetter ['feter], it extends along the middle of the mouth and the point rests against the roots of the lower front teeth; when it
is in low position, as in the vowel of haul [horl], the tongue rests on the floor of the mouth and the point touches the lower gums. The surface divisions and the vertical positions of the tongue are important in analyzing both vowel and consonant sounds, but more important for vowels than consonants. A looking-glass should be used as an aid in studying the movements and positions of the tongue. For a more exact analysis of the vertical positions of the tongue, one might consider five positions, as follows, high, high-mid, mid, low-mid, low.
11. Tense and Slack Sounds. One other distinction with respect to the tongue is significant, especially in the study of vowel sounds, that is, the degree of its muscular tension. It may be slack (or relaxed), as in the vowel of sit [sit], or tense (or flexed), as in the vowel of he [hir]. When the vowel is slack its vertical position is slightly lower than when tense, but not so much so as would follow a general shifting of the body of the tongue. The vowels of he and sit are both high vowels, the former being high blade tense, the latter high blade slack. The sides of the mouth and the lips generally are also likely to be held more firmly in pronouncing a tense than in pronouncing a slack sound. All long and stressed vowels are relatively tenser than short or unstressed vowels. A phonetic alphabet of high precision should have a means for indicating degrees of tenseness, but for practical purposes perhaps these general remarks and those to be found under the discussion of the separate sounds will prove as useful as an elaborate system of representation, and less distracting. Speakers differ widely in the degree of tenseness and slackness of their sounds, a slow and lazy speaker often having none of the tense vowel sounds
which are characteristic of a cultivated and vigorous enunciation. The only way of testing the organic difference between tense and slack sounds is by observing the difference in muscular sensation which attends the production of them. By focusing attention upon these sensations, one may become as clearly conscious of muscular tension in the tongue as of muscular tension in the arms or legs.
12. Stops and Continuants. The column of air as it issues may be completely stopped by the organs of speech, with a sudden release or explosion, or only partially stopped, with a gradual emission of the breath. When it is completely stopped, the sounds produced are stop consonants (also called explosives, or plosives), e.g., d in did [dId], p in pip [pip], b in bib [bib]. When the air passage is only partly obstructed, the sound produced is a continuant consonant, e.g., the sounds represented in the conventional alphabet by $\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{th}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{ch}$, sh, y. Stop consonants are instantaneous, but continuants share with vowels the possibility of being lengthened indefinitely. The difference between vowel and consonant is largely one of degree, a vowel being a sound produced without any notable obstruction of the vocal passage, a consonant, one in which the air current is definitely obstructed, either wholly or partially. Certain vowels, such as the vowel [it] when pronounced very tensely, or the vowel [u] pronounced with excessive rounding, shade imperceptibly into the continuant consonants [j], [w]. Normally, however, the distinction between vowel and consonant is quite clear. The continuant consonants $\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{n}$ are sometimes called semivowels, and they may constitute syllables by themselves without
an accompanying vowel, as in winter ['wintr], table ['te:bl], heaven ['hevn]. Words of this type may, of course, be pronounced with a vowel before the final consonant, that is, ['wintor], ['terbol], ['hevon], but these would be very formal pronunciations. When a consonant is syllabic, a dot may be placed under it to indicate this fact. This is not necessary, however, since a consonant which is syllabic will naturally be pronounced so without special direction.
13. Stop consonants, both voiced and voiceless, though especially the latter, are pronounced in English with such a violent explosion of the breath, that they are mechanically followed by a slight, but distinctly audible breath continuant, [h]. A more exact representation of the consonants in dig, toy, etc., would therefore be $\left[d^{h} I g^{h}\right]$, [ $\left.t^{h} \mathrm{OI}\right]$, etc. This slight after-sound will not be indicated in the phonetic transcriptions of the present volume, the general statement here made being intended to cover all instances, but the phenomena should be carefully studied. Note that there is a greater aspiration after an initial than after a final consonant, as in pop; or when a consonant stands alone, as in pool, than when in close combination with another consonant, as in spool, cf. also tin, sting, peach, speech, etc.; or when a consonant bears a relatively heavy stress, than when lightly stressed, as in the two stop consonants of paper, the two [ t ] sounds of potato, the two [k] sounds of cocoa; or after a voiceless than after a voiced stop, cf. toe and dough. The extent to which the aspiration is present thus seems to depend upon the degree of intensity or energy with which the explosions are made. With some speakers the aspiration is scarcely audible at all, though such speakers are rare
and are usually of a somewhat listless habit in speech. On the other hand, an extreme of aspiration is present in some forms of dialect speech, see below, p. 202.
14. In words like better, winter, putty, and in general in words in which a stressed stop is followed by an unstressed -er, or an unstressed vowel, the stop is sometimes pronounced without aspiration, the final syllable -er being ordinarily represented merely by a syllabic $\mathbf{r}$, i.e., ['betur], ['wintu]. But the pronunciation with the stop consonant aspirated is to be preferred. When a voiceless stop is not aspirated, it commonly sounds like a voiced stop, as in pronunciations like ['wind.x], ['bed.x], ['wod.x], ['ledx], ['padr], for winter, better, water, letter, putty. See § 240.
15. When two stop consonants come together, the first of the two is usually pronounced with an incomplete explosion of the breath. Thus words like looked or befogged are not pronounced with a fully formed $[\mathrm{k}]$ as in look, or a fully formed [g] as in fog, followed in the former case by [ t ], in the latter by [d]. If they were, the complete phonetic form of such words would be something like $\left[l^{h} \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]$, [bífog $\left.{ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]$. What happens is that the organic position for $[\mathrm{k}]$ or $[\mathrm{g}]$ is assumed, is then held for a moment, the organic position for the following stop being arrived at before any explosion takes place. In consequence, there is only one complete explosion in looked befogged, and many similar consonant combinations. There is, however, a very slight fricative consonant sound, a kind of [ h ], which is heard after the vowel and before the pause. Analytically, a word like looked would consist of the initial consonant, the vowel, the slight frictional glide before the stop position for $[\mathrm{k}]$ is completely assumed, a
pause, and finally the explosion which produces $[\mathrm{t}]$. See § 346.
16. Palate and Nose. The palate may be considered as composed of two parts, the soft-palate (or velum), at the back of the mouth, and the hard-palate, which forms the concave roof of the mouth. In front of the hardpalate lies the bony ridge of the alveoli or gums. The hard-palate is immovable, but the soft-palate is subject to muscular control and can be raised or lowered at will. When it is raised, as for the most part it is in speaking, it closes the entrance to the nasal canals, hence the name velum, 'veil.' When it is lowered, the air is permitted to pass through the nose, as in breathing or in the production of the nasal consonants $\mathbf{n}[\mathrm{n}]$ as in $\sin [\mathrm{sm}], \mathrm{m}[\mathrm{m}]$ as in him [him], ng [ n ] as in song, sing [son], [sin]. In pronouncing a nasal consonant, no breath is permitted to escape through the mouth, but the current is stopped either at the lips, as in [m], or within the mouth by the pressure of the tongue against the front of the roof of the mouth, as in [n], or further back, as in [n].
17. Nasal Vowels. English has no nasal vowels in recognized good use, though with many speakers in America, almost all the vowels, but especially the low and mid slack vowels, are nasalized, and at the same time are lengthened or 'drawled,' see $\S \S 80-82,128$. The nasal pronunciation of vowels is usually the result of a lazy and unenergetic enunciation. It is by no means peculiar to American speech, but is heard in England, if not as generally, often quite as markedly as in America. Since nasal vowels result from lowering the velum and thus permitting air to issue through the nose as well as the mouth, a good way to test their presence in one's
speech is to hold the nostrils shut while pronouncing the vowels. If one finds that one's vowels are the same, whether one holds the nostrils shut or does not, there can be no nasalization in the sounds. But if one finds that one produces a different vowel sound when one holds the nostrils shut from that which is produced when one does not, this means that the vowels are nasalized, the peculiar quality of the sounds in the first case being due to the fact that the air which normally escapes through the nose in pronouncing a nasal vowel is obstructed artificially by the pressure of the fingers on the nostrils. This produces the peculiar 'twang' described in the next paragraph. The fault of nasalization is one merely of habit and can be corrected by practice. It is most likely to occur in vowels which precede or follow a nasal consonant, whether [m], [n] or [ n$]$, but with many speakers it is heard also in vowels not in nasal surroundings. Nasalization of vowels is so general in American speech that it often passes unnoticed, and is often present in the speech of persons who are quite unaware of the fact and who can be made to realize it only after much patient observation. Some speakers who do not ordinarily nasalize vowels are inclined to do so when they are tired.
18. Another kind of faulty nasal speech is sometimes heard in speakers who pinch together the walls of the nose at its outlet, raising the upper lip and tightening all the muscles of that region of the face, the result being a peculiar 'twang' or resonance which is immediately corrected by relaxing these muscles and allowing the breath to issue freely from the nose in pronouncing nasal consonants, and in the case of vowels, by raising the velum so that the air does not enter the nasal canals at all. This
kind of nasalization is less common than that described in the preceding paragraph, though it is marked in some types of American dialect speech.
19. The 'talking through the nose' of a person with a cold in the head is not truly described by this phrase, for one of the main characteristics of this supposed talking through the nose is that the velum and the nasal passages being inflamed and swollen, the nasal channels are obstructed mechanically, and the escape of the breath through the nose, which takes place when the velum is lowered in pronouncing a nasal consonant, or when it relaxes normally after the pronunciation of other consonants or a vowel, is prevented. The result is that instead of $\mathbf{n}[\mathrm{n}]$, one with a cold will pronounce something like [d], and for m will pronounce [b], and for [ p ] will pronounce [g], as in [gud 'bordig] for good morning; [sprig, 'dzedtl sprig] for spring, gentle spring; [ә ko:ld Id bar doiz] for a cold in my nose.
20. The Lips. The form of the lips is also to be noted, especially in studying vowel sounds, and is easily observed. They may be drawn back (wide or spread) as they are in pronouncing the vowel of he, see, tea, etc., or they may be rounded (protruded or pouted) as they are in pronouncing the vowel of too, do, blue, etc. When they are neither wide nor rounded, but are in the normal position of rest, as in the first vowel of father, or the first vowel of about, they are said to be neutral. Various stages of widening are to be observed between neutral position and the extreme wide position of tea, and likewise various degrees of rounding between neutral position and the extreme rounding of too. Even a slight shift from one position to another may modify the quality
of a vowel. Many speakers tend to move their lips very little, and almost all English sounds can be made audibly, though monotonously and not clearly, with practically no motion of the lips. A clear and distinct enunciation, however, demands an active muscular control of the lips.

## II

## DESCRIPTION OF SOUNDS

21. Voiced Stops. The phonetic symbols for the voiced stops are [b], [d], [g]. The first of these is a voiced bilabial stop, as in beet [bist], baby ['berbr], bib [bib]; the second is a voiced point alveolar stop, as in do [du:], shady ['Serdr], did [did]. The character of the sound represented by [g] varies considerably according to the quality of the vowel sounds with which it is combined. With a back vowel, as in the word gong [gon], the sound is a voiced back soft-palate stop. When the vocalic surrounding is front, as in geese [giss], fatigue [fæ'tirg], the consonant is a voiced front hard-palate stop. The shading from the extreme of the back sound to the extreme of the front sound is gradual in differing combinations. As the front or back quality of this sound is dependent upon the vowel with which it is combined and is necessarily determined by it, in the interest of economy in the alphabet one symbol, [g], will be used in this book for all shades of the sound.
22. Voiceless Stops. The phonetic symbols for the voiceless stops are [p], [t], [k]. They are the voiceless equivalents of [b], [d], [g], the first being a voiceless bilabial stop, as in pay [per], pope [porp]; the second a voiceless point alveolar stop, as in hit [hrt], debtor ['detex]. As with [g], the character of the sound represented by [ k ] is determined by vocalic surrounding. In
call [korl], the initial consonant is a voiceless back softpalate stop, but in keel [kill] it is a voiceless front hardpalate stop.
23. Fricative Continuants. The term 'fricative continuants' designates those consonants which produce an acoustic effect of whistling, hissing, puffing, 'rolling,' or merely 'rough breathing.' They are of several varieties and must be described separately.
24. [h] represents the voiceless glottal fricative and the voiceless front fricative. As a voiceless glottal fricative, [h] is produced with the tongue lying neutral on the floor of the mouth, as it does in normal breathing, but with the glottis so narrowed by a partial closure of the vocal chords that the air in passing between them causes an audible friction. If the vocal chords were drawn close together and the glottis quite closed, the air forcing its way through would set the chords vibrating and thus produce a vowel sound. Thus in the exclamation Ha! [hat], the only change which takes place in the transition from the consonant to the vowel is a change at the glottis, which changes from half-closed in [h] to closed in [at]. When [ h ] precedes a vowel the formation of which requires a departure of the tongue from that position of almost complete rest which it occupies in [a], the tongue position is assumed for the vowel even while the consonant is being pronounced, as in hat [hæt]. And in general one may say that there are as many varieties of [ h ] as there are varieties of vowels before which it may stand. Before the high vowels, however, the glottal friction tends to be replaced by a friction made in the mouth, and [ h ] standing before a strongly stressed [it], as in heed [hiid], becomes a voiceless front fricative, formed by
pressing the front of the tongue so hard against the palate that the air in escaping produces a consonantal noise. The main differences between [it] and [h] in heed are that in the consonant the tongue is pressed closer to the palate, therefore forms more of an obstruction to the current of air, and that the consonant is voiceless, the vowel voiced. The voiceless front fricative is still more unmistakeably heard in words like hue, hew, Hugh [hju:], huge [hjuidz], humor ['hju:max]. It is both unnecessary and impracticable to record all shades of [h], and the one symbol will be here used to cover all varieties of the sound.
25. [j] represents the voiced front fricative, formed with the front of the tongue raised close to the hard-palate, the sound made by the breath escaping through the narrow opening being accompanied by vibration of the vocal chords. Before a back vowel, as in yawl [jorl], the [j] is formed slightly farther back than it is before a front vowel, as in yield [jirld], but the difference is not great. This sound is not strongly consonantal in English. The tongue position for it is almost the same as for [i], and this vowel slightly raised and intensified passes over into [j]. It is the first element in the so-called 'long $\mathbf{u}$ ' sound, as in music ['mjuszik], pure [pjusi], etc. It is commonly represented in the ordinary spelling by $y$.
26. [ $M$ ] may be described as a voiceless, back, liprounded fricative. The tongue is raised at the back, the lips are rounded so as to reduce the opening of the mouth, thus causing a friction that produces a slight whistling sound. Its corresponding voiced form is [w], though [M] is slightly more whistling than [w], the lips being more pursed and the breath expelled more energetically. The usual spelling for $[M]$ is wh, as in whit
[nat], which [mitS], while [mall], etc. Many speakers have only [w] for both [w] and [ m ], see $\S \S 27,372$.
27. [w] is the voiced, back, lip-rounded fricative. The distinction between the voiced and voiceless sound will be apparent to some speakers only after close observation and experiment. Speakers who have no [ $M$ ] are advised to study carefully the pronunciation of such pairs of words as whit, wit, whet, wet, when, wen, which, witch, etc. The ordinary spelling for the sound is $\mathbf{w}$, but also $\mathbf{u}$ after $\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{g}$, as in quit [kwit], language ['længwidz], after s in persuade, dissuade, etc., and the sound appears also in several words, e.g., one [wan], choir ['kwaiax], the spelling of which is exceptional.
28. [ f ], the voiceless upper-teeth lower-lip fricative, as in fit [fit], stiff [strf], famish ['fæmif], rough [raf], philosophy [fr'lasofi]. The sound is caused by the escape of the breath as it is forced through the openings between the upper teeth. With some speakers whose teeth are set very close together, the breath is allowed to escape between the edges of the upper teeth and the lower lip. In general it should be said that owing to the great difference which exists among individuals in the formation of their teeth, all sounds in the production of which the teeth are a prominent factor can be and are produced in a variety of ways.
29. [v], the voiced upper-teeth lower-lip fricative, as in live [liv], [larv], vat [væt], vision ['vizn], ['vizən], heavy ['hevi]. Foreign speakers sometimes pronounce [v] for [w], in learning English, but the error is easily corrected by observing the manner in which the sounds are produced. In pronouncing [w], the upper teeth
never touch the lower lip, but both upper and lower lip are protruded. In pronouncing [v] the lips are drawn back or widened.
30. $[\theta]$ is a voiceless point inter-dental fricative. The point of the tongue is between the upper and lower teeth, the breath escaping mainly between the middle upper teeth. Some speakers extend the point of the tongue between and slightly beyond the teeth, but with others the tongue is placed merely on the edge of the upper teeth. The acoustic effect is the same. Examples of words in which $[\theta]$ occurs are thing [ $\theta \mathrm{m} \mathrm{n}]$, breath [bre $\theta$ ], hath [ $\mathrm{h} æ \theta$ ], myth [ $\mathrm{mi} \theta$ ], wrath [ræ日].
31. [ $\gamma]$ is the voiced equivalent of $[\theta]$, being a voiced

 [wið]. When strongly stressed, as in the adverbial position at the end of a sentence, with may have a voiceless consonant, [wit].
32. Many foreigners, for example Frenchmen and Germans, have difficulty with the sounds $[\theta]$, $[\delta]$ in speaking English, not because the sounds are hard in themselves, but because they do not occur in the native language of the speakers, and being unfamiliar, are pronounced like sounds that are familiar, usually [f], [s] or [v], [z]. Any one who understands the way in which the sounds are made can readily produce them.
33. [s], a sound of somewhat complicated formation. The point of the tongue is pressed lightly against the upper teeth, the blade lightly against the gums, the front teeth are loosely closed, and the breath is sent forth in a
narrow stream over the tongue and between the teeth. It may be described, therefore, as a voiceless, bladealveolar point post-dental fricative. It appears in words like sin [sin], sieve [siv], cell [sel], psalm [sarm], receive [ri'sirv], fancy ['fænsi].
34. The difference between normal $[\mathrm{s}]$ and a sharp, hissing sound sometimes heard for $s$ is that in the latter the teeth are tightly closed, the tongue tense, and the breath sent forth with greater force than it is in [s]. In cultivated speech, $[\mathrm{s}$ ] is a gentle rather than an energetic sound.
35. $[z]$ is formed in the same way as [s], with the addition of voicing. The tongue may be very slightly lower and more relaxed in pronouncing $[z]$ than it is in pronouncing [s]. The sound is commonly written as z or s, as in zinc [zink], zealous ['zelos], dizzy ['dizI], his [hzz], beds [bedz], music ['mju:zik].
36. When [z] occurs at the end of a word, the sound is really composed of two parts. The main part is the voiced continuant represented by the symbol $[z]$, but at its conclusion the sound changes from voiced to voiceless, from $[\mathrm{z}]$ to $[\mathrm{s}]$. In their treatment of $[\mathrm{z}]$, some speakers, usually those of foreign tradition, have a very 'buzzing' kind of pronunciation, due to the fact that their final $[z]$ is pronounced voiced throughout. This makes the sound seem unusually long, though its peculiarity lies not in its length, but in the lack of the voiceless ending which is present in standard speech.
37. [S], as in ship [STp], wish [wT]], chip [ t [Tp], shawl [ $\int 011$ ], bush [buf], mission ['mi〔n], ['mifan], may be described as a voiceless, blade-dental point-alveolar frica-
tive. The blade of the tongue presses against the sides of the middle upper teeth, closing the openings there, the point almost touches the upper gums, the teeth are closed, and the breath issues along the channel between the tongue and the roof of the mouth through the openings between the upper front teeth. The channel through which the breath issues is broader than it is in pronouncing [s]. The sound is represented in a great variety of ways in conventional spelling, see § 327.
38. [z], as in pleasure ['plezax], decision [di'sizn], judge [d3^d3], is the voiced equivalent of [S]. It has no letter of its own in the conventional alphabet and is indicated in spelling in various ways, see $\S \S 328 \mathrm{ff}$.
39. [r] is produced by raising the body of the tongue so that the sides of it press against the upper teeth, tilting the point of the tongue so that it just barely touches the bony ridge of the gums, and allowing the breath to escape with a distinctly audible friction over the point of the tongue and between the teeth, which are slightly open. It may be described, therefore, as an alveolar r, with reference to the position of the tongue. The vocal chords are in vibration and the lips are slightly drawn back. The breath escapes with considerable force between the up-tilted point of the tongue and the alveoli, and it is here that the consonantal friction in [ r$]$ is produced, not as the air passes between the teeth. The tongue positions for $[\mathrm{r}]$ are somewhat similar to those for [S], [3], but in [r] the teeth are open, in [S], [3] the upper and lower teeth are generally in close contact.
40. This is the sound commonly heard in American speech for r initially, as in red [red], between vowels, as
in very ['verr], and after consonants, as in dress [dres]. Before proceeding further with the consideration of various other kinds of $\mathbf{r}$, the student is advised to observe extensively the occurrence of [r] in the three positions just mentioned in different words, and to study the sound itself so as to be able to distinguish the consonantal from the vocalic element in it. A voiceless $r$, which is merely frictional, should be compared with the voiced fricative [r], as for example the tr of tread pronounced separately without voicing as compared with red, read (preterite of the verb), pronounced [red] with voicing.
41. A trilled or rolled $r$, though not very common in American speech, is sometimes heard, especially for $\mathbf{r}$ between vowels, as in very, hurry, etc. It is commonly cultivated in stage pronunciation on the ground that it carries better than the fricative $\mathbf{r}$. It is also cultivated by telephone operators in the pronunciation of three. It is formed by causing the point of the tongue to tap or vibrate against the gums, once or more, and in highlydeveloped forms of trilled $\mathbf{r}$, a considerable number of times. This sound is so rare in American speech that it has not seemed necessary to provide a special symbol for it. It may be regarded as a variant form of [r].
42. [x] is also a voiced sound, but the friction accompanying the vocalic element is so slight that one might hesitate to group it with the fricatives, or with the consonants at all. Its orthographic representation, however, is $\mathbf{r}$, and it is commonly thought of as being a variety of this sound.

In pronouncing [ I ] the point of the tongue is not tilted as high as in [r], but if it were permitted to touch the roof of the mouth, which it does not do, it would strike
the region just back of the upper teeth and in front of the place where the concavity of the roof of the mouth begins. It is commonly heard in American speech before consonants and finally, as in part [past], hard [hasd], heard [herd], cord [kosd], fir, fur [fox], demur [dı'mor], car [kaix], dinner ['dinor], color ['kslex], never ['never], etc. There is less friction in the pronunciation of [r] than of [r], the space between the tongue and the roof of the mouth being greater, and some phoneticians do not recognize any consonantal value for orthographic $r$ before consonants and finally. It is true that $[x]$ is regularly omitted by some speakers, especially in the East and South in America, when it is final or stands before another consonant, the difference between taw and tore, pot and part, so far as there is one with such speakers, being altogether a difference of vowel quality or length. In unstressed position, as in never, the word ends, in this manner of speech, with the vowel [ə], as in ['nevə]. A word like part consists, in this pronunciation, of only three elements, [p], [at] and [t], giving [pait]. But in all regions of the United States, especially away from the Atlantic seaboard, an orthographic r commonly has phonetic value before consonants and when final. Whether one calls this sound which is heard a consonant or not is of little importance, provided the existence and quality of the sound itself are recognized. Its presence can be easily demonstrated by observing the tongue positions in pronouncing a word like part. This word, in American pronunciation which is not typically Eastern, contains four elements, the first and last being stop consonants, the second and third resulting from a shifting of the tongue from mid to high position accompanied by curving or tilting of the point. In never, when the word ends
only in a vowel, as in Eastern American pronunciation, the tongue position at the conclusion of the word is that of [ə], that is mid position, with the point of the tongue touching or on a level with the lower front teeth. With those, however, who are said to pronounce their r's, the word ends with the tongue in high position and the tip of the tongue on a level with the roots of the upper teeth, giving ['never]. The difference between [r] and [x] may be tested by pronouncing the word never by itself, and then by letting it be followed by rains, as in it never rains. Of course if one has no final $\mathbf{r}$, this would be simply [it 'neve remz]. But if one pronounces final r's, the final consonant of never cannot simply be carried over, like a long consonant (see § 83), to satisfy the demand for the initial consonant of rains. A slight modification in articulation is observable in pronouncing the two r's, which is adequately represented, however it be named, by the two phonetic symbols [r] and [r].
43. Some speakers, especially those of an unenergetic habit of enunciation, pronounce $[\mathrm{r}]$ for $[\mathrm{r}]$ even in the stressed initial position, between vowels, and after consonants. The pronunciation of [r] for [ I$]$, that is a strongly fricative consonant finally and before other consonants, as in ['never], [part], etc., is current in localities, but is not general in standard American English.
44. Another variety of $\mathbf{r}$ is heard, especially in the North Central states and in the Middle West, which is produced by bending back the point of the tongue so far that if it actually came into contact with the roof of the mouth, it would strike about the middle of the hardpalate. This is often spoken of popularly as 'guttural r,' though it would be truer to the facts to call it a hard-
palate $\mathbf{r}$, or simply, back $\mathbf{r}$. Dialect story writers usually represent it by doubling the spelling, as in corrn, farrm, etc. The sound is often so marked in the regions in which it occurs as to constitute as distinct a dialect feature as the loss of [x] before consonants and finally is for the Atlantic seaboard. Speakers who have this back [r] are often said to 'roll their r's,' though as a matter of fact there is no more rolling or tapping of any of the organs of speech in pronouncing this $r$ than there is in pronouncing the common $[\mathrm{r}],[\mathrm{I}]$. It is, however, sometimes prolonged. Englishmen and Eastern Americans often find this sound offensive. ${ }^{1}$
45. Lateral Continuants. Lateral or side continuants are represented in standard English only by 1 [1], as in land [lænd], million ['miljon], all [o:l]. In forming this sound the point of the tongue is placed against the roots of the upper teeth, and the blade against the gums, which means that the whole body of the tongue lies in high position; the sides of the tongue are free and the air issues through the narrow channels at the sides of the mouth between the tongue and the cheeks. Normally the breath issues through both sides of the mouth, but the sound may be produced with the channel open only on one side of the mouth. Some speakers curve back the point of the tongue in producing this sound, so that the point

[^0]presses against the front part of the hard-palate. It makes little difference in acoustic effect whether the breath issues through only one or through both sides of the mouth, but the curving back of the point of the tongue so that it presses against the hard-palate produces a variety of [1] which is not current in standard speech. This [l] is particularly noticeable when it is preceded by i or e, as in hilly, sell and similar words, the curving of the tongue for 1 affecting also the vowels and producing pronunciations somewhat like ['həli], [sol]. It is noticeable also in final unstressed syllables, as in table, moral, feeble, people, and it is this 'dark' or 'thick' 1 , as it may be described, which writers of the popular dialect sometimes indicate by a spelling like peepul for people. It is a sound to be avoided in cultivated speech.
46. The quality of [1] in standard speech is not quite the same when it stands in the neighborhood of a front sound, as in lit [lit], ill [ll], as when it stands in the neighborhood of a back sound, as in law [lot], all [oil]. The consonant takes color to some extent from its vocalic surrounding, and one may speak of a front and a back [1]. The difference is not so important, however, as to call for separate symbols for the two qualities. The sound is usually voiced, though it may sometimes be voiceless when it follows a voiceless consonant in an unstressed position, as in hospital ['haspitl], ['hosprtl].
47. Because of its vocalic character, [1] sometimes constitutes a syllable without any accompanying vowel, as in middle ['midl], table ['terbl], battle ['bætl], special ['spell], not ['midal], ['te:bal], ['bætal], ['spe§al], except in a very formal pronunciation.
48. Nasal Continuants. The nasal continuants are [m], [ n ], [ n ], as exemplified respectively in may, no, song and sing. In $[\mathrm{m}]$ the lips are closed, the tongue is quiescent, the velum lowered, and the vocal chords in vibration, producing a bilabial nasal voiced continuant. In [n] the stoppage in the oral passage is made by the point of the tongue pressing against the upper gums, as in [d], the velum is lowered, allowing the air to pass through the nose, and the vocal chords vibrate, producing a point alveolar nasal voiced continuant. In [n], as in song [son], the back of the tongue presses against the forward part of the soft-palate, forming a back soft-palate voiced nasal continuant. In sing [sin] the front of the tongue presses against the hard-palate, forming a front hard-palate voiced nasal continuant. The grades of [ n$]$ correspond in formation to [g], with the addition of nasalization, and as in the case of [g], [ k$]$, [ h$]$, only one symbol, [ n$]$, will be used for all shades of this sound.
49. Compound Consonants. The initial and final consonants in church, judge, call for no special symbols, since $c h$ is a combination of [ $t$ ] and [ []], and may therefore be written $[t]]$, and $\mathbf{j}, \mathrm{dg}$, is a combination of [d] and [ 3 ], therefore written [d3]. It should be observed that th of the ordinary spelling does not stand for a double consonant, but for a sound which is as single as the sound of $[\mathrm{s}]$ or $[\mathrm{f}]$ or $[\mathrm{z}]$, and is therefore represented by a simple symbol, [ $\gamma]$ or $[\theta]$. See § 8.
50. Vowels. In analyzing the vowels, one must consider (1) the vertical position of the tongue, whether high, mid, or low; (2) the region of the tongue which is most elevated in producing the several vowels, whether the
back, the front, a region between the back and front, the blade, or point, though the point is rarely of significance in vowel formation; (3) the degree of tenseness of the tongue, whether tense (flexed), or slack (relaxed); (4) the presence or lack of rounding of the lips. The tongue may lie also in altogether neutral position, with no part particularly active, in which case it is said to be flat. In describing the vowels it will be clearest to start with the high front vowels as the ones whose method of formation is most easily observed. It is easy to analyze the vowels at the extremes, like [ii] in see [sii], which is the highest and farthest front of all vowels, or [0:] in saw [sor], which is the lowest and farthest back of all English vowels. As one approaches the mid and front positions of the tongue, however, the analysis becomes increasingly difficult, and vowels like $[\varepsilon]$ in set [set], [ $\varepsilon!]$ in there [ $\delta \varepsilon n]$ ], [ $\Delta$ ] in hut [hat], [ A ] in hurt [hast], with the r silent, [ $æ$ ] in hat [hæt], [at] in fast [fa:st], [a] in hot [hat] differ from each other very slightly both in acoustic effect and in organic method of formation. Even slight variations, however, are often sufficient to draw attention to differing manners of pronunciation.
51. [i]. High blade tense wide. The body of the tongue is raised as high as it can be in the production of any English vowel sound. The blade and front are pressed up close to the hard-palate, the muscles of the tongue and the cheeks are tense or flexed, and the sides of the mouth are drawn back, making the lips wide. The point of the tongue rests against the backs of the lower teeth, as it does in almost all English vowel sounds. The mouth is open and the teeth apart about the space of the thickness of the tip of the little finger. This vowel may be
short or half-long, as in completely, [kəm'pli•tli], deify ['di•r'far], beatific ['bia'tıfrk], seasonable ['si'zanəbl], or long, as in seed [siid], see, sea [sit], deceive [di'sitv], seethe [si:\%]. There is no difference in quality between [i] and [ii], though when final, [ii] may become somewhat diphthongal, see § 76.
52. [r]. High blade slack neutral. This vowel is formed exactly like [i], except that the muscles of the tongue and cheek are relaxed, and the lips are allowed to fall into neutral position. It is always a short vowel, and examples of it are found in sit [sit], city ['siti], finish ['fins]], cylinder ['srləndəx]. When the tongue is relaxed in [I], it becomes slightly lower than it is in pronouncing [i].

In the two syllables of a word like city, the vowel is represented by the same symbol, though as a matter of fact, $[\mathrm{I}]$ in unstressed position is slightly lower than [ I$]$ in the stressed position. Separate symbols might be used to indicate this, or one may speak descriptively of [ I ] in unstressed syllables as being more open or lower than [I] in stressed syllables. It is the open [ I ] which is frequently heard in unstressed initial and final syllables, as in decide [di'said], begin [bi'gin], added ['ædid], basket ['bæskit].
The vowel [ I ] also appears as the second element in diphthongs, see §§ 71, 72, 75.
53. [e]. Mid front tense wide. The whole body of the tongue falls a little into mid position in passing from the two preceding sounds to this sound. The point of the tongue touches the bases of the lower teeth, but the front is arched so that it touches the sides of the upper teeth. The tongue and cheek muscles are flexed, and the lips are wide, though not so wide as in [it]. The jaw drops a little from the position for [i], so that the distance between the
teeth is about the thickness of the index finger. This vowel may be short or half-long, as in vacation [ve'ke•Jon], patriot ['pe•triət], fatally ['fe•tali], complacent [kəm'ple'sont], or long, as in raid [retd], fade [fetd], place [pless]. There is not usually any difference of quality between [e] and [er], though the latter tends to become diphthongal when final or before voiced consonants and under full stress, see $\S \S 71,207$.
54. [ $\varepsilon$ ]. Mid front slack neutral. This sound occupies the same position relative to [e] that [r] does to [i]. It is always a short vowel in English, as in set [set], said [sed], medicine ['medism], debt [det], perish ['perry], ferry ['ferr], guess [ges], led, lead (noun) [led], dense [dens], trench [trentS].
55. [ $\mathrm{\varepsilon}$ ]. Mid half-front slack neutral. This is a long vowel which occurs only before $\mathbf{r}$ in stressed syllables, and is represented in spelling by e, ei, ea, a, ai, as in there, their [ $\delta \varepsilon!\leq]$, pare, pair, pear [peır], fair, fare [fع!u], lair [len]], tear (verb), tare [tenr], fairy ['femr], Mary ['merri], chary ['tferri], wary ['werri]. The vowel is really slightly lower than $[\varepsilon]$ and is formed slightly farther back, that is, it is a half-front vowel, but it is represented here by the same symbol, with the mark of length added, to avoid increasing the number of symbols. As [ $\varepsilon$ ] is never long, and [ E ] occurs only in the position before $\mathbf{r}$ in stressed syllables, no confusion between the two sounds is likely to occur. Instead of [ $\mathrm{D} \varepsilon ⿺ 𠃊 \mathrm{I}$ ], [pe:I], etc., those speakers who do not pronounce their final r's have [ $\delta \varepsilon!ə]$, [ре:ә], etc.
56. [æ]. Low front slack wide, as in hat [hæt], has [hæz], fashion ['fæ§n], laggard ['lægəad], and very common
in American pronunciation in words like path [ $\mathrm{p} æ \theta$ ], fast [fæst], dance [dæns], etc., see §§ 124-130. In words of this latter type, the vowel sometimes becomes long, but ordinarily in standard pronunciation it is short. The tongue is in slightly lower position than it is for [e!], but is not as low as it can be made to be. To be more exact, one might describe its position as low-mid. The point of the tongue rests against the lower gums, but the front is raised and is felt lightly touching the lower edges of the upper teeth. The muscles of the tongue are relaxed, but the sides of the mouth are slightly drawn back, producing a very slightly wide lip formation. The mouth is open wide enough to enable one to insert the tips of the little and ring fingers.
57. [a]. Low half-back slack neutral, as in father ['fa:ठәa], palm [parm], and, in the pronunciation of some Americans, fast [fa:st], dance [daints], [dams], calf [ka:f], etc. In these words the vowel is long, but the short vowel, with a difference only in quantity from the long, is commonly heard in America in words of the type of hot [hat], not [nat], pod [pad], stop [stap], etc. The tongue is low in the mouth, though not quite so low as in [0t], and the tip touches the lower gums. The part of the tongue which is raised is back, but not so far back as in sounds like [o], [o], [ot], with which [a] should be compared. It lies between the back and front surfaces of the tongue, but a little closer to back than to front and is therefore described as half-back. The tongue muscles are relaxed, and the lips are at rest or neutral. The space between the teeth is sufficiently wide to enable one to insert the index and middle fingers. The teeth are farther apart and the mouth more open in pronouncing
this vowel than they are in uttering any other English vowel.
58. [a]. Low half-front slack slightly wide. This sound is widely current, especially in artificial speech in America, as a compromise vowel between [a:] and [ $æ$ ] in words of the type of fast, calf, dance, grass, etc., which are pronounced as [faist], [kaif], [da:nts], [dams], [graıs], or [fæst], [kæf], [dænts], [dæns], [græs], or [fa:st], [kaif], [da:nts], [da:ns], [gra:s], etc. In these and similar words the vowel is commonly long. As a short vowel the sound occurs only as the first element in the diphthong [aI], see $\S \S 72,209$. The tongue position is the same as for [a], except that the part which is elevated is slightly more forward than for [a]; it is not a front sound, but is nearer to front than back position and is therefore described as half-front. The lips are slightly retracted or widened, and with some speakers, especially those who use the sound consciously, the muscles of the tongue and cheek are likely to be somewhat tense. The sound has acquired unusual importance in the discussion of American usage because it is so often cultivated as an artificial refinement in certain words which in natural, unconscious use have [at] or [æ].
59. [u]. High back tense rounded, as in mood [muid], tube [tjuib], juice [djuss], where it is long, or musician [mju'zifn], ludicrous ['ludikres], where it is short or halflong. There is no difference in quality between the long and the short vowel, though the long vowel sometimes tends to become diphthongal, see § 76. The tongue is raised high, with the back part of it touching the softpalate. From the back forward the tongue slopes down until the point touches the lower gums. The muscles of
the tongue are moderately tense．The lips are protruded and distinctly pouted or rounded．The teeth are about as far apart as they are for［i］，perhaps a little farther．

60．［ర］．High back slack rounded，as in bush［buS］， full［ful］，book［buk］，good［gud］．The positions of the vocal organs are the same as for［u］except that the muscles are relaxed and the vowel is therefore slightly lower．It is normally only a short vowel，though some speakers might pronounce it long before［r］，in words like poor， moor，lure，etc．

61．［0］．Mid back tense rounded，as in notable［＇no＇tabl］， notation［no＇te•的］，devotional［dr＇vo•的］，where it is short or half－long，or note［nott］，spoke［spork］，rode， road［rord］，where it is long．There is commonly little difference＇in quality between＇［ 0 ］and［ 0 ：$]$ in American speech，though［o：］tends to become diphthongal under certain conditions，see § 74．The tongue is in mid po－ sition in producing this vowel，the back elevated towards the soft－palate，the forward surface sloping down until the point touches the lower gums．The muscles of the tongue are moderately tense，and the lips are rounded slightly less than for［u］．This sound should be compared with［A］，［ $\Delta t]$ ．

62．［ə］．Mid back slack rounded，as in authority ［ ${ }^{\prime}$＇⿴囗⿱一一儿口灬土tit］，long［lon］，song［son］，and in many words in which usage varies between［0］and［a］，as in positive ［＇pozitiv］or［＇pazitiv］，hot［hot］or［hat］，dog［dog］or ［dag］，etc．It is normally a short vowel in standard pro－ nunciation，and its method of formation is the same as that of $[0]$ except that the sound is slack，therefore slightly lower than［ 0 ］．The lips are also slightly less rounded．
63. [0t]. Low back tense rounded, as in law [lot], awe [ot], thought [ $\theta 0 \mathrm{tt}$ ], caught [kort]. The tongue is in the lowest possible position, the extreme back of it is elevated towards the soft-palate, the point touches the floor of the mouth beneath the lower gums, and the muscles of the tongue are somewhat tense. The lips are rounded, and the teeth far enough apart to enable one to insert the thickness of the thumb between them. This vowel is normally only a long vowel and occurs only in stressed syllables. In dialect pronunciation it appears in some words which in standard speech have [0] or [a], as in dog [dorg], God [gord], long [lom], frost [froist], see § 111.
Though the same symbol is used for [0] and [at], the organic difference between the two vowels should not be overlooked. The vowel [ 0 ] is not merely a shortened [ot], but acoustically and organically it is a recognizably different vowel. As the difference in quantity implies also this difference in quality, it has not seemed necessary to provide [0:] with a separate symbol.
64. [4]. Mid half-back slack slightly wide, as in cut [kıt], up [ap], butter ['bster], hurry ['harr], son, sun [san], some [sım]. This sound should be compared with [ 0 ] the tongue positions for which are the same, except that in [ $\Lambda$ ] the part of the tongue elevated lies a little in front of back position, best described as half-back. The lips also instead of being rounded are slightly wide. Compare this sound likewise with [ E ]. The vowel [ $\Lambda$ ] is normally only a short vowel.
65. [A1]. Mid half-back tense slightly wide. This vowel occurs only as a long vowel, and only before $r$ followed by a consonant, or before $\mathbf{r}$ final, according to the ordinary spelling, in the speech of those persons who pronounce
no $r$ in these combinations. Examples would be: curse
 person ['paison]. The sound should be clearly distinguished from [ $\Delta$ ]. It is much more tense than [ $\Lambda$ ], therefore appreciably higher and more front, and the lips are slightly more retracted. The point of the tongue touches the lower teeth. The mouth is open, as in [ $\Lambda$ ], sufficiently wide to enable one to insert the ring finger between the teeth. The sound should also be distinguished from [ $\theta$ ] and [ə], both of which, besides being different in quality, are always short.
66. [ə]. Mid flat slack neutral. This is the so-called obscure vowel, which appears only as a short sound in unstressed syllables, as in about [ $\boldsymbol{\rho}^{\prime}$ bavt], nation ['neifon], national ['næ〔ənəl]. The method of formation of this sound is very similar to that of [ $\alpha$ ], the main difference being that in [ $\alpha$ ] the tongue is in low position, in [ə] it is in mid or perhaps low-mid position. The tongue lies almost level in the mouth in pronouncing [ə], the point touches the lower teeth, the muscles are very slack, as they naturally would be in an unstressed syllable, and the lips are at rest in neutral position. The positions of the organs of speech are very much as they are in normal breathing. Vowels which ordinarily have distinct values when they stand in stressed position may all of them become this vowel in the unstressed position (see §94), especially in popular speech, as in the popular pronunciations fellow ['felə], yellow ['jelə], piano [pi'ænə] for standard ['felo], ['jelo], [pi'æno].
67. [ə]. Mid inverted tense neutral. This vowel occurs normally only as a short sound, before $\mathbf{r}[x]$ followed by a consonant or before $\mathbf{r}[\mathrm{I}]$ final, in the speech of those

Americans who sound this [ x ]. It is considerably tenser than [ $\partial]$, therefore slightly higher and the middle parts of the tongue are somewhat more elevated. But the most characteristic quality of this vowel is due to the fact that the point of the tongue is lifted up and slightly inverted so that it is directed towards the roof of the mouth. In other words, the tongue position for [ x$]$ is practically taken even while the vowel is being pronounced. This is the only vowel in English in the formation of which the point of the tongue rises above the level of the lower teeth, and the only one in which the tongue is hollowed or curved up. For this reason it is called an inverted vowel. The lips are neutral, and the teeth, as in [ə], are open wide enough to enable one to insert the ring finger. Examples of the occurrence of this sound are found in words like clerk [kloık], mercy ['moisi], pert [pəat], dirt [dost], shirt [ $\mathrm{jort}^{2}$ ], hurt [həat], spurt [spəat], dearth [dəat], worth [wari], fur, fir [fəa], her [həa], sir [səx], murmur ['məدməx], infer [ $\mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ fər], purr [pər], slur [sləx], stir [stəx].
68. In unstressed final syllables, the $\mathbf{r}[\mathrm{r}]$ may be syllabic or may be preceded by [ə] as in winter ['wintu] or ['wintex], supper ['sıpı] or ['sıpar], stronger ['strongr] or ['strongex]. The second of these would be rather marked formal pronunciations.
69. In segregating this sound from surrounding sounds in words, the student is advised to begin with the simplest possible combination, as in err [əx]. The double spelling rr in this word signifies nothing, as the word has phonetically only one consonant. The vowel preceding the consonant should be distinguished first from the vowel of a word like ere [ $\mathrm{E}: \mathrm{I}]$, which has the same vowel as there, pair, bear, etc. Those speakers who do not sound [ I ] in
err have only a simple vowel in this word, commonly the vowel [4:]. Those speakers who do pronounce the final consonant have a short [ə] followed by the slight frictional $\mathbf{r}$ which is designated by [x]. It may be helpful to practice pronouncing err with an alveolar $\mathbf{r}[\mathrm{r}]$, or a trilled or back r, proceeding then to the slighter consonantal sound in [ər]. In passing from [ə] to [x] the only change in the organs of speech is the increased raising or tilting of the point of the tongue which brings it into a position close to the roots of the upper teeth and which causes the slight frictional element in [x]. Next one may proceed to the analysis of complexer groups of sounds, like fir, fur [fox], person ['poasən], heard [hord], dirt [dəat], hurt [həat], which should be clearly distinguished both from [for], ['pərsən], [hərd], [dərt], [hərt], and from [f^ı], ['pıisən], [haid], [dAst], [hast]. The organic differences between [ $\Lambda$ ], [ $\Lambda 1$ ], [ $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ ], [ə] are at first not easy to analyze, but the acoustic distinctions intended by the several symbols are apparent to a sensitive ear and often constitute quite noticeable differences in pronunciation.
70. Diphthongs. A diphthong is a vowel combination which starts with one tongue position and glides to another before the sound closes. There is no articulatory break between the two elements of a diphthong, as there is, for example, when the first two vowels of a word like pre-eminent [pri'emənənt] are pronounced. A typical diphthong would be the vowel of ride [rard]. Diphthongs are sometimes written in the conventional spelling with two letters, as in house [haus], boil [borl], but sometimes also they are written with a single vowel.

In general long vowels tend to become diphthongal. Some of the long vowels, however, as [at]. [e:], are very
rarely diphthongal. The vowel [0t] sometimes becomes [əг], the glide [ə] being caused by the instinctive raising of the tongue from the very low position of [0:] to the more normal mid position of [ə]. With inversion of the point of the tongue, this [ $\partial$ ] becomes [ x ], see § 305 . The commonest diphthongs in American English are [er], [ar], [au], [ou], [or].
71. [eI]. This diphthong may be described as a diphthongal variant of [et]. In a word like fate [fert], there is generally no diphthongal quality present in the American pronunciation of the vowel. It is a simple long vowel. When fully stressed before voiced consonants and at the end of stressed syllables, however, it tends to become more or less markedly diphthongal, as in fade [feId], pay [per], strayed [streid] as compared with straight [strett].
72. [ar]. This is the common sound of words like ride [raid], tie [tar], sigh [saI], sight, site, cite [sart], buy, by [bar].
73. [au]. An obvious diphthong, which appears in words like house [haus], cow [kav], trowel ['trauel], frown [fraun].
74. [ou]. Like [er], this sound may be described as the diphthongal quality of a long vowel, in this case [ot]. In words like note [nort], boat [bort], where the vowel stands before a voiceless consonant, it commonly has no diphthongal value. Before voiced consonants and finally, it tends to become more or less markedly diphthongal, as in rose [rouz], bowl [boul], road, rode [roud], tow, toe [tou], no, know [nou], though [గou]. But see §§ 218-220.
75. [ər]. This is the clear diphthong of words like boil [boil], boy [bor], void [void], annoy [a'nor], coign, coin [kom]. With this last example compare coincidence [ko'rnsidəns], where oi is of course not diphthongal.
76. The vowels [i] and [u] are rarely diphthongal, even when fully stressed and long. When [i] becomes diphthongal, it starts on [I] and closes with [i], as in sea [sii]. Ordinarily, however, American speakers would pronounce the vowel in this and similar words merely as [ii], making no qualitative but only a quantitative difference between the vowel of see, sea and the first vowel of seasonable ['sizanəbl]. In the same way the vowel of two, too may be pronounced as a diphthong, composed first of a slack followed by a tense element, that is [twu], but it is more likely to be heard merely as [ut]. The difference between the vowel of tooth [tu: $\theta$ ] and the first vowel of toothsomeness ['tu日som'nis] is only one of quantity.
77. The diphthongal character of a prolonged [i] and a prolonged $[u]$ may best be observed when these words are under an exceptionally heavy stress. For example, in I didn't say key, I said tea, the antithesis calls for a phonetic representation as follows: [aI didnt se• 'kri, ar sed 'trii]. So also the vowel of true is likely to be noticeably diphthongal in the following phrase, It may be interesting, but is it true? [it me• bi 'intrisistin, bet iz it 'truu:?]. The words say and may in the above sentences are only slightly stressed and the vowel is short or halflong, not diphthongal.
78. [ju]. The so-called 'long $\mathbf{u}$ ' of words like mute [mjut] is not, strictly speaking, diphthongal, since the sound which precedes $[\mathrm{u}]$ is consonantal and not vocalic.

It should be observed, however, that [j] in English is never a strongly consonantal sound; the close relation between [i] and [j] has been pointed out above, see § 25. One may occasionally hear this sound pronounced as [iu], but in standard speech its form is [ju]. It is grouped here with the diphthongs merely for practical convenience.
79. The two elements of a diphthong are commonly not equal in stress or length, but one is more prominent than the other. In [eI], [ou], [au], [oI] the first element is the more prominent, in [ii], [vu], [ju] it is the second, and in [ar] it is mainly the second, though with many speakers the two elements of this diphthong are about equal in stress and length.
80. Quantity. As the term is used in phonetics, the word quantity refers primarily to duration, not to the difference of quality in sounds. Sounds may be long or short, the long sound being indicated by the sign [r] placed after it. When it is necessary to indicate a degree between long and short, that is a half-long, which implies of course that one is uncertain whether the sound is long or short and that it may be either, the sign $[\cdot]$ is used. When not marked as long or half-long, sounds are to be considered short. It should be understood that the terms long and short are used not to designate absolute quantity, that a long sound is not always so many seconds or fractions of a second long. The vowel of awe [0:] is long, but so also is the vowel of awful ['orfol], though not absolutely so long as the vowel of awe. The length of a vowel depends very much upon the number of syllables in the word containing it, the position of the word in context, and also upon the amount of stress the syllable con-
taining the vowel receives. Unstressed vowels are very seldom long. Moreover, all vowels are appreciably longer before voiced than before voiceless consonants; cf. bead [bird] and beet, beat [bitt], feed [fi:d] and feet, feat [firt], league [lig] and leek, leak [li:k], peas [piz] and peace [pis]; or compare loaf with loaves, life with lives, half with the verb halve, etc. In the following words the vowels are all short, but not equally short: let [let], led [led]; debt [det], dead [ded]; hit [hit], hid [hid]; rot [rat], rod [rad]; hook [huk], hood [hud], etc.
81. In a prolonged diphthong it is the first element of [er], [ou], [au], [эI] which is lengthened, the second element in [ii], [vu], [ju], and both in about equal proportions in [aI]. Examples of some of these prolonged diphthongs may be observed in a declamatory pronunciation of the first line of the Star Spangled Banner, O say, can you see by the dawn's early light ['ouv 'seni,
 it is not necessary to indicate the length of the elements of a diphthong, except [ju].
82. Many speakers in America have a slow and unenergetic manner of enunciation, which results in a dragging or 'drawling' of the vowel sounds, so that normally short vowels become long and long vowels become over-long. Thus hat [hæt] becomes [hært], pitch [pitS] becomes [pitt]], well [wel] becomes [we:l], etc., this last illustration being one of the conventional marks of Brother Jonathan's English on the stage and in fiction. This statement applies to diphthongs as well as simple vowels. The manner of speech is characteristic of provincial and rustic, not cultivated American English.
83. The distinction between long and short applies to consonants as well as vowels. Long consonants occur in English only when two consonants of the same kind come together in compound words or in close syntactical phrases with a main and secondary stress. Compare pen-knife ['pen!'aff] with penny ['penr], mad dog ['mædı'og] with mattock ['mætak], lessee ['less'i] with dressy ['dress]. In rapid pronunciation a word like pen-knife may have only a short consonant, just as the phrase a good deal may be [a'gud:'ill] or [a gu'dill], though never [a'gud 'dill], except in artificial pronunciation. Note that long consonants are not double consonants, pronounced with two separate articulations. Spellings such as occur, add, egg, etc., are of course no indication that the consonants written $\mathbf{c c}, \mathrm{dd}, \mathrm{gg}$ are long. The consonant of egg [ Eg$]$ is short, but in egg-glass ['eg'læs] it is long. Stop consonants are made long by assuming the stop position and holding it for a moment before the explosion is allowed to occur. A long stop consonant cannot be called a double consonant because a double consonant would call for two distinct explosions. A long continuant is merely the ordinary continuant prolonged.
84. Stress. Syllables are stressed, unstressed, or secondarily stressed (half stressed). Unstressed syllables are not marked, but stress is indicated by the acute accent before the syllable affected, secondary or half stress, by the grave accent, as in inkwell ['mnk'wel]. Stress like length is to be understood as a term of relative, not absolute significance. In a group of words like A black bird is not necessarily a blackbird [a 'blæk 'bord iz nat nesa'serill a 'blæk'basd], the third syllable of necessarily is marked as a stressed syllable, and it is stressed relative
to its surroundings, that is, it is the stressed syllable of its word, though not so strongly stressed as the second syllable or third of the phrase or either of the syllables of the last. And though the second and third words of the"phrase are both stressed, they are not equally stressed, one or the other being made the more emphatic according as the logic of the phrase appeals to the speaker.
85. The stressing of syllables in words of two or more syllables is fixed with considerable exactness by convention, but the stressing of words in the word group varies with circumstances, logically emphatic words usually receiving relatively heavy stress. Sometimes the conventional stress of words is altered for the sake of emphasis, as when an antithesis is made prominent, e.g., Thousands for defense, not a man for offense [' $\theta a u z ə n d z$ fo. 'diffens, nat ə mæn for 'ofens]; or in a very emphatic or exclamatory word, e.g., delighted ['dis'lattrd], absolutely [æbso'ljutli], exactly ['eg'zæktli], exquisite [ kks 'kwiztt], etc. Sometimes in the word group, even a word logically very unimportant is stressed for emphasis, especially in colloquial style, e.g., "What did he say?" "He didn't have anything to say" ['mat did hi 'ser? hi 'didnt hæv 'eniӨin 'tu 'ser].
86. The second element of compound words, so long as it bears a fairly clear logical content, carries a secondary stress, as in book-shelf ['buk-'「elf], butter-knife ['batar'naff], etc., but when the second element no longer has a separate logical value, it loses its stress, as in husband ['hızbənd], cupboard ['kıbəad], etc. Sometimes the two elements of a compound are pronounced with practically equal or level stress, as in beef-steak ['biif-'sterk], ax-handle ['æks-'hændl], Broadway ['brord-'wer], etc.,
but usually such words, when they appear in context, carry only a secondary stress on the second element, as in beefsteak and potatoes ['biif-'ste:k n pa'tertoz], unless a special need for emphasizing both logical elements in the compound is present.
87. Syllabic accent in words is fixed more or less exactly by convention, and especially in words of native origin, little variation in usage occurs. In some words of Latin origin, however, several ways of stressing the same word are current. In dissyllables compounded of a prefix plus a root, it is a fairly general rule that verbs stress the root, as in perfume [par'fju:m], refuse [r'fju:z], proceed [pro'sisd], combine [kəm'bam], protest [pro'test], transfer [træns'fəa], absent [æb'sent], premise [pri'maiz], annex [ $æ^{\prime}$ neks], abstract [ $æ \mathrm{mb}^{\prime}$ strækt], address [ $\mathfrak{æ}^{\prime}$ dres], etc.; whereas substantives stress the prefix, ['posfjum], ['refjuz], ['pro•sidz], ['kambamn], ['pro'test], ['trænsfer], ['æbsənt], ['premis], spelled premise or premiss, ['æn\&ks], ['æbstrækt], ['ædres], etc. But the rule is not infallible, and some noun compounds of this type are stressed sometimes on the first and sometimes on the second syllable, e.g., address, annex, ally, allies, falloy, access, excess, recess (but only success [sok'ses]). Academic authority sometimes prescribes a single pronunciation, e.g., [æ'lar], [ $æ^{\prime}$ laiz] for ally, allies, or [ri'ses] for recess, in spite of the fact of divided practice in usage.
88. In cement a distinction was formerly made between the noun ['semənt] and the verb [si'ment], but now both noun and verb are stressed on the second syllable. The word is not etymologically a compound but seems to have been assimilated in feeling to verb compounds.
89. Sometimes stress determines meaning, as in accent ['æksent], 'to stress or emphasize in speech,' but [æk'sent], 'to emphasize particularly a thought or distinction.' The stressing of certain words also may change with their syntactical position. Thus abject, adult, adverse, excess, occult, and a great many other compounds of like kind used as adjectives, for which the dictionaries usually record only one form, with stress on the second syllable, may be stressed according to rule when the adjective stands in absolute position, e.g., He was most abject [æb'djekt] in his behavior, but when the adjective stands in regular adjective position before the modified word, the stress is likely to shift to the first syllable, e.g., The most abject ['æbdzekt] creature I ever saw. Compare the phrase a complex argument [ $\boldsymbol{a}$ 'kampleks 'augjumənt] with his argument was very complex [hiz 'augjumənt woz 'veri kam'pleks], or occult sciences ['akalt 'sarensiz] with in the regions of the occult [in $\delta_{\partial}$ 'ritdzənz əv $\delta_{\mathrm{r}} a^{\prime}$ kalt]. In instances of this sort, accent seems to be determined by the rhythm of the phrase, and rhythm undoubtedly plays a large part in all variabilities of stressing in English. The statement of these rhythmical rules would be very complex, and the dictionaries, being under the necessity of speaking briefly and dogmatically, do not give a faithful or detailed picture of usage in these respects. Those speakers who follow the dictionary rules as to stressing are frequently compelled to substitute a mechanical rule in place of a natural practice. It is impossible to formulate any simple practical rules of certain guidance in the stressing of these variable dissyllables and polysyllables in English, since the words do not fall into clearly maintained categories. Under the circumstances, the most economical and practical method is to learn the
stressing of such words by observing and following usage.
90. The word program, programme, is pronounced ['pro'græm], though a popular pronunciation ['progrom] is also heard and seems to be growing in use. In acorn standard American pronunciation is ['er'komn], but in some regions of the South and West an earlier pronunciation ['erkom] survives in local use. For frontier the usual American pronunciation is [fran'tiox], but in England ['frantie]. For quinine a number of pronunciations occur (see § 213), the most common being ['kwar'nam].
91. In words of three syllables an uncertainty in usage with respect to the stressing of the first or second syllable affects a number of words, of which a few typical examples may be cited. Words ending in -ate are commonly stressed on the first syllable, as in acclimate, compensate, concentrate, confiscate, contemplate, demonstrate, illustrate, though some speakers cultivate a pronunciation with stress on the second syllable. ${ }^{1}$ For remonstrate, however, the stress is more commonly on the second syllable. The word consummate as a verb is stressed on the first syllable, as an adjective on the second.
92. Other instances of trisyllabic words in which usage is unsettled are albumen, armistice, aspirant, combatant, combative, opponent, vagary, the prevailing usage having stress on the first syllable of all these words except the last two. For deficit only a pronunciation with stress on the first syllable is current in America, but [dr'fisit] is general in England. For envelope (noun) the pronunciation is often [en'velop], but more commonly

[^1]['enva'lo $\cdot p$ ] or ['anva'lo p], ['onvə'lo p]. For eczema the professional and formal pronunciation is ['ekzrme] or ['Eksimə], but popularly the word is often pronounced [ $\mathrm{kk}{ }^{\prime}$ zi:mo]. The word plebiscite is a somewhat learned word with no definitely fixed popular pronunciation. It is most commonly pronounced ['plebrisait], ['plebisit], and less frequently [ple'bisit]. For gondola, a somewhat learned word, the conventional pronunciation is ['gandəle], but in popular speech often [gan'do:lb]. For vehement the standard pronunciation is ['viəmənt], but [vi'himmənt] is heard in popular speech. For inquiry a pronunciation with stress on the first syllable is sometimes heard, but the common standard pronunciation is [mn'kwarrı]. For idea the standard pronunciation is [aI dia], but one frequently hears, especially in the South, ['adir]. A pronunciation ['ai'dit], with both syllables about equally stressed, is popular and illiterate.
93. Under the head of words of three syllables may be considered words ending in -able, since the 1 in this ending is very lightly syllabic. The general tendency is to stress these words on the first syllable, unless the influence of another form, like deny, rely, comply, preserves the stress on the second syllable, as in deniable [dr'narabl], reliable [ri'larabl], compliable [kəm'plarəbl]. But referable, preferable are always ['refərəbl], ['prefarəbl], in spite of refer, prefer, [rıfox], [pri'fox]. In applicable, despicable, disreputable, formidable, hospitable, the stress is commonly on the first syllable, but not infrequently the second syllable is stressed by cultivated speakers. In admirable, dissoluble, lamentable, refutable, revocable, the stress is very rarely on the second, though this pronunciation for admirable is frequent in popu-
lar English, and may sometimes be heard in the other words, perhaps through the influence of head forms like dissolve [dr'zorlv], lament [lo'ment], refute [rifju:t], revoke [ri'voik].
94. An instance of unexpected stress in a trisyllabic word is Willamette [wr'læmət], town and river in Oregon.
95. In words of four syllables the question is again one of stressing either the first or the second syllable, though when the first syllable is stressed, there is usually more or less secondary stress on the third. Thus for contemplative the most general pronunciation is [kən'templatrv], but also ['kantəm'ple•trv]; for aristocrat both [ ${ }^{2}$ 'ristəkræt] and ['æristə'kræt]; for fragmentary the general pronunciation ['frægmən'terr], but sometimes [fræg'mentori]. For difficulty the only current pronunciation in America is ['drfikaltr]. For diocesan the analogy of diocese ['darasis] sometimes produces a pronunciation ['darə'sisson] for standard [dar'osison]. But the word is learned and has no general currency.
96. For advertisement both ['ædver'taizment] and [æd'vastizmənt] are in current use; for obligatory both [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'bliga'tori] and ['abliga'tori]; for peremptory both ['perom'tori] and [por'emptorr]. The standard pronunciation of municipal is [mju'nisopl], but a popular form ['mjuns'srpl] is sometimes heard. For capillary both ['kæpə'leri] and [kə'piları] are current, the former being the more general. For celibacy the current pronunciation in America is ['selabisi], but in England both ['selabisi] and [so'libasi] are in standard use.
97. In general, American speech makes a much greater use of secondary stress in polysyllables than British
speech. Words like declamatory, dignitary, derogatory, dysentery, extraordinary, sedentary, temporary, many place names, such as Birmingham, Bradbury, etc., commonly receive in England only one stress, [dr'klæmrtri], ['dıgnitri], [di'rogatri], ['disəntri], [ [ik'stroidnri], ['sedəntri], ['tempreri], ['bs:mıəəm], ['brædbri]; but in America such words almost universally bear a strong secondary stress besides the main stress, as in [dr'klæmə'tori], ['dignə'teri], [di'rogə'tori], ['disən'teri], [Ik'stroudi'neri], ['sedən'teri], ['tempə'reri], ['baumıŋ'hæm], ['bræd'beri].
98. In some words, however, secondary stress, though heard in popular speech, has been discarded in cultivated pronunciation, e.g., interest, interesting, ['intrrist], ['intəristin], popularly pronounced ['intor'est], ['intər'estin] or ['Intor'estin]; cemetery ['semrtri], popularly ['semə'teri]; favorite ['fervrit], genuine ['djenjuin], popularly ['ferva'rait], ['dzenju'am].
99. Vowels in Unstressed Syllables. The general tendency of vowels in unstressed syllables, especially in informal colloquial speech, is to weaken and to become the vowel [ $\partial$ ], or in certain endings, [ I ], see §§ 146, 173. Sometimes, however, in more formal speech, a vowel is used in unstressed syllables which has not the full and clear value which one ordinarily gives to the vowel in stressed position, nor yet the weakened sound of [ə] or [r], but a sound intermediate between the two. Thus the word oblige in informal speech would be [ $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ blaid3], and in very formal speech, a kind of spelling-pronunciation, it might be [o'blard3]. But the initial vowel is more likely to be a compromise between [ $\rho$ ] and [ 0 ], and if it is desirable to indicate this orthographically, it is suggested that this be done by placing two dots over the [0], giving
[o'blard3]. The same device can be applied to the other vowels. Thus the word violet may be transcribed as normally ['varalit], but formally as ['vaiöl̈tt]; attack as normally [a'tæk], but formally [ë'tæk]; fashion as normally ['fæen] or ['fæeon], but formally ['fæJön]. It has not been deemed necessary to indicate these distinctions in the transcriptions of the present volume.
100. Sound groups. The division of speech into detached words, as in conventional printing and writing, does not usually correspond to the actual sound groupings of the language as spoken. In the phrase Life like a dome of many colored glass ['larf lanko'dorm əv'meni'knlord'glæs], there are only three sound groups, the last being as much a single sound group as the word incomprehensibility [ $\mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ kampri'hensi'biltti]. In phonetic transcriptions, however, it seems more convenient to follow the traditional division into words, except when for special reasons it is advisable to indicate the real phonetic groupings.
101. In some few words like don't, hasn't, isn't, won't, this fusing of words into sound groups is represented in the conventional spelling, and writers of dialect stories often indicate them by spelling, as in "I gotta go" for "I've got to go." But what is thus made a humorous dialect characteristic is humorous only because of the unconventional spelling. All current colloquial speech in some degree makes such combinations and 'telescopings' of words which are syntactically closely related, e.g., I used to think [aI 'justa $\theta \mathrm{mk}$ ]; Don't you want to come? ['domtfu 'wonte kım?]; It wasn't your turn ['twazon'tfus 'tam]; Did you get it? [didzə 'get it?] or [dzə 'get It ?].
102. Pitch. It is impossible to indicate by any simple mechanical means which are adequate the rising and falling intonations of the voice in speech. Three degrees of pitch are readily observable, which may be designated as high, level and low, and one may construct intonation curves which will correspond to these more obvious changes of pitch in connected speech. It is doubtful, however, if these curves will convey to any one not already familiar with the speech a satisfactory realization of its cadences. The intonations of a speech are very important for its idiomatic use, but they are too subtle and varied for simple description, and must therefore be learned by direct observation and experience. Perhaps the most apparent general characteristic of American speech, so far as cadence is concerned, is its levelness of tone. The voice rises and falls within a relatively narrow range, and with few abrupt transitions from high to low or low to high. To British ears American speech often sounds hesitating, monotonous and indecisive, and British speech, on the other hand, is likely to seem to Americans abrupt, explosive and manneristic. Both habits of speech, it need scarcely be said, are established by convention, and one is not more conscious or affected than the other.
One reason for the relative levelness in pitch of American speech may be that the American voice in general starts on a higher plane, is normally pitched higher than the British voice. If it is true, as is often said, that American life is more intense, more highly keyed nervously, than life in England, the high pitch of the American voice may reasonably be regarded as a natural consequence of this state of affairs. There is likely to be less range of cadence in a tense than in a relaxed manner of speech. If one ventured to give any general advice to American
speakers, it would be therefore to cultivate repose and ease of utterance. From this will result naturally the variety in cadence and the flexibility which give to speech its characteristic melodic qualities. The relatively dry climate of America may have something to do also with the high pitch of the American voice. It is a fact easy of verification that the pitch of one's voice is considerably lower in soft foggy weather than it is on a dry clear day.
103. Speed. The rate of speed in utterance varies widely with the emotional quality of the content of speech, and also with the temperament of individuals. Some people talk like greased lightning, others are as slow as molasses. American speech as compared with British is commonly said to be slow and 'drawling.' The effect of 'drawling' is partly produced by the levelness of intonation in American speech, partly by the retention of secondary stresses in polysyllables (see § 97 ), though partly also by a distinctly slow tempo in the utterance of many speakers. The habit of slow tempo in speech is usually regarded in America, however, as a mark of rustic speech, or of somewhat humorous Brother Jonathan speech, and it is doubtful if on the whole American cultivated speech is any slower than British speech. Even if it were, however, this could not be said to constitute a very serious charge against the language.
104. Timbre. The timbre, or characteristic quality of the speaking voice, is something over which the individual has very little control. It is determined by nature through the special character and shape of each person's vocal apparatus, including of course the vocal chords just as the characteristic sound of a fife or flute or othe 0 instrument is determined by its physical structure.
probably no two persons have exactly the same physical equipment of speech, the timbre of no two voices can be exactly alike. Timbre is therefore the most individual and personal of all the elements of speech. A keen ear can readily distinguish several different voices and assign them definitely to their owners, even when the voices pronounce what we commonly call the same sound. From its nature timbre does not enter into the discussion of practice in pronunciation. Training may, of course, accomplish much in enabling one to realize the possibilities of one's 'organ,' as for example by correcting defects and developing the various muscles controlling the production of speech, but training cannot alter its essential character.
105. Proper Names. The pronunciation of proper names, both place names and personal names, is in general subject to the same rules as the pronunciation of the other words of the language. A traditional spelling is more likely to be retained in proper names, however, long after the pronunciation has changed. This is especially true in family names, in which conservative family tradition often preserves a spelling which corresponds very inadequately to the current pronunciation of the names. In England this peculiarity is more marked than in America, and spellings and pronunciations like Colquhoun [kə'huin], Claverhouse ['klævəz], Cockburn ['koubən], Marjoribanks ['maıs-, 'maıtSbænks], Meagher ['ma:a], Rivaulx ['rivzz], to mention but a few among many, are likely to seem grotesque to the American eye and ear. In America the general tendency is to bring about a closer agreement between spelling and pronunciation, and for Colquhoun we commonly have Calhoun, for Cockburn either Coburn or a pronunciation which corresponds to
the spelling Cockburn, for Meagher a spelling Maher, or a spelling Meeker with corresponding pronunciation, or Meagher is pronounced ['mitga]].
106. Some American place names are direct borrowings from England, such as Leominster ['leminster], Gloucester ['glostar], Worcester ['wustox], in Massachusetts, and have retained an archaic spelling. But the name of the town in Ohio named after the town in Massachusetts is Wooster, and many other proper names in America have undergone a similar rationalizing modification. Since proper names are always the personal possessions, so to speak, either of families, or of localities in which they are current, their pronunciations and spellings must be accepted in the form which their possessors wish them to have.
107. Many names of foreign origin have been Americanized, French Du Bois being pronounced [du'borz], German Koch pronounced [kat5], Dutch Schurman, in which sch was [sk], as it still is in Schuylkill ['skuilkil], Schuyler ['skarlor], etc., being pronounced as though it were the same as Sherman. One cannot make a general rule as to the pronunciation of such names of foreign origin, though it may be said that in the main any efforts which individuals may make to preserve the pronunciation of their names in accordance with their original phonetic forms are likely to prove unavailing in view of the strong general tendency to follow native analogies in pronunciation. Change in pronunciation may of course be held in check by changing spelling, as was done in the name Knickerbocker, originally spelled with a in the next to last syllable, pronounced [a], but changed to o to avoid the common tendency to pronounce $a$ as $[æ]$ or $[\mathrm{e}]$. In-
cidentally this change throws light on the American pronunciation of $\mathbf{o}$, see $\S \S 110-111$. It may be added that in thus Americanizing names of foreign origin, American speakers have done no more than English-speaking peoples have always done, as, for example, in what, from the Gallic point of view, must seem outrageous Anglicizations of Bourchier into ['bautSo], of Belvoir into ['biive], of Beaulieu into ['bju:li]. The French even the account, however, by Gallicizing English names, and any foreign words which pass current among a people are almost sure to suffer a sea-change in the course of time.
108. A somewhat noticeable feature in the American as well as British pronunciation of proper names is the tendency to stress dissyllabic family names on the second syllable, especially when in spelling the second syllable is written with a double consonant, as in the pronunciations Birrell [br'rel], Bithell [bi' ${ }^{\prime}$ el], Cornell [koa'nel], Burnett [bas'net], Bennett, Bennet [be'nct], Gillett [d3i'lct], Furness [for'nes], Purcell [par'sel], Purnell [par'nel], etc., but also even Farrar [fa'rasi], Millard [mi'laud], etc. In older usage these names were commonly all stressed on the first syllable, and in some instances the pronunciation with stress on the second syllable is quite recent and consciously assumed.
109. Levels of Speech. It is extremely important in the study of speech to be able to observe with detachment speech habits which in the main are quite unconscious. Though conscious speech habits are by no means unimportant, they constitute but a small part of the whole complex of a language and rarely indicate the direction of development which the language is taking. The student must cultivate the ability to observe the activities of
natural speech, which is normal speech, utilized for the purposes of communication with very little thought as to its formal character. Natural or normal speech thus differs from precise speech, which is largely self-conscious and theoretical, and it differs also from slovenly speech with which the precise speaker is inclined to confuse it. A speech may be fairly characterized as slovenly only when its articulations are habitually muddy and indistinct, when its general effect is such as to indicate a laxness of speech activities parallel to what untidiness and uncleanliness would be in other personal habits. Ungrammatical or dialect speech is not necessarily slovenly, and in fact it is often the reverse, being frequently very crisp and energetic. On the other hand, one may find slovenly speakers even among those who pass as highly cultivated. The natural level, between precise and slovenly speech, may best be observed in the familiar conversation of educated persons whose habits of speech are not finical or affected.

The appeal in testing natural speech must always be to the ear. No one 'speaks as he writes' in English, and the attempt to regulate speech by the visible word lands one in countless absurdities. The precise speaker, however, will often do violence to the natural form of a word in order to make it over according to the pattern of the visible word. No one in natural speech pronounces two g's in suggest [so'dzest], and it is a purist affectation to attempt to do so. In asked no one pronounces a final [d], the sound being always $[\mathrm{t}]$, and in current speech, no one pronounces both a clear $[\mathrm{k}]$ and a clear $[\mathrm{t}]$. One may pronounce a very slight [ k ]-sound, though most speakers have no [k] at all, but simply a long [s], e.g., [a:stt], and some omit the [t] altogether, pronouncing the preterite
like the present. This last pronunciation is not prevalent among cultivated speakers, though it represents no greater departure from the written form of the word than the prevalent pronunciation. In any case the natural pronunciation departs from the conventional spelling. In natural speech, unstressed vowels tend to become [ə], as, for example, about [ $\partial^{\prime}$ baut], upon [a'pon], amend, emend [a'mend], national ['næSənal], description [di'skripfən], [da'skrip ${ }^{2}$ n], and only a conscious desire to reform the natural speech could lead to the attempt to introduce a clear vowel in the unstressed syllable of these words. But it seems safer to follow the normal processes of the language, and in doing so, one cannot do better than direct attention to the unconstrained speech of educated and well-bred persons. The decision who such persons are must naturally be left to individual judgment.

All natural and unconstrained speech is not, however, on the same level. The speech of formal discourse and of the public address, and in general of all expression where exceptional clearness and carrying power are important, differs in many details from the speech of colloquial and familiar conversation. Each is of course appropriate in its own surroundings, and it would be as much an error to speak formally when the situation called for familiar speech as to speak colloquially in a formal situation. If either level of speech be regarded as exceptional, it is obviously the formal speech, as the speech of a special occasion, that must be so regarded. In this volume the unconstrained colloquial speech of educated and well-bred persons has been taken as the norm, and deviations from it have been characterized as formal or precise or dialectal (provincial, local, or popular), or slovenly.

## III

## SOUNDS AND THEIR OCCURRENCE

[a]
110. A short vowel [a] is general in America, with local exceptions in New England, in fop [fap], got [gat], hot [hat], lot [lat], not [nat], stock [stak], chocolate ['tJaklit], and many other words written with o before a voiceless stop. In sections of New England, as in British pronunciation, such words have a sound which closely approximates [ə], that is, [fop], [hot], [lot], [not], [stok], ['tjoklit], etc., and this pronunciation may also be heard, especially in certain words, for example chocolate, elsewhere, though exceptionally, in America.
111. In many other words commonly written 0 , usage varies widely throughout America between [0] and [a], the length of these vowels also varying from short to half-long or long, and even at times to over-long. The quantities are so unstable that it is difficult to indicate them with certainty:
(a) Before a voiced stop, both pronunciations occur in dog [dog] or [dag], log [log] or [lag], hog [hog] or [hag], etc.; in God [god] or [gad], sod [sod] or [sad], etc. Before [b], however, the preponderance of usage seems to be markedly in favor of [a], as in rob [rab], sob [sab], nobby ['nabi], etc. The pronunciation of daub [dorb] as [dab] is popular and dialectal.
(b) Before the continuant consonants the same .ririqtion ocerrs:
(1) beiore [1] or [r]: doll [dol] or [dal], follow ['folo] ©r ['falo], hollow ['holo] or ['halo], pollen ['pi lon] or ['palən], etc.
coi'oner ['korənəx] or ['karənəx], forest ['iorist] or [ ['arist], foreign ['form] or ['farm], forehead ['forid] or ['farid], horrid ['horid] or ['harid], orange ['orindz] or ['arindㅟ, torrid ['iurid] or ['tarid].
(2) before nasal continuants: John [dzon] or [dzan], on [on] or [an], strong [stron] or [stran], pomp [pomp] or [pamp], romp [romp] or [ramp], etc.

The pronunciations [stomp] for stamp (verb) [stæmp] and [tromp] for tramp (verb) [træmp] are dialectal.

For bomb the current pronunciations in America c.e [bam] and [bom], and [bлm] is also heard, though probably less commonly in America than in England. The influence of the spelling favors [bom], and for this season many speakers incline to regard [bım] as a popular ead dialectal pronunciation. See § 204. The pronunciation [bum] is not general.
(3) before other continuants:
coffee ['kofr] or ['kafi], off [of] or [af], often ['fn] or ['afn], soft [soft] or [saft], cough [kof] or [kaf].
cost [kost] or [kast], docile ['dosil] or ['dasil], hospital ['hospitl] or ['haspitl], ostrich ['ostritS] or ['astritS], Boswell ['bozwel] or ['bazwel], rosin ['rozin] or ['razin].
broth [brot] or [brae], Gothic ['gotik] or ['gairk], moth [mot] or [mat], bother ['boðəx] or ['baðəəx].

- grovel ['grovel] or ['graval], also ['graval], novel ['noval] or [ xavel]; hovel is ['haval] or ['hsval], never ['hoval]; so
also hover ['haver] or ['haver]. For shovel the only pronunciation is ['SAval], ['SAvl].
(c) After [w], the sounds in question occur in words usually written a, but with a similar variation in usage, though the preference here seems to be clearly in favor of [0], as in quarrel ['kworal], swamp [swomp], swan [swon], want [wont], wash [wof], wasp [wosp], water ['wotax]. But the preference is by no means consistent, and ['swalo], ['wabl] seem to be more common for swallow, noun and verb, and wabble, than ['swolo], ['wobl]; and in individual usage, many speakers who say wash [wof], Washington ['woSmton] will also pronounce watch as [wat5] and squab as [skwab]. This inconsistency extends through the whole group of words, and the same speaker who says God [gad] will say dog [dog], and so with many other words. In such a state of affairs, all that can be said with respect to these usages is that they vary according to habit or preference. One caution may be entered, however, against making the vowel [0] too long, as in the pronunciations commonly indicated in dialect stories by the spellings dawg and Gawd, that is, [dorg], [gotd].

On the dialectal pronunciation of [0:] as [a] or [at], see § 187.
112. The colloquial contraction aren't ['arənt], or with omission of the $\mathbf{r}$ [aint], often becomes [eint], [emt], but only in very familiar colloquial or dialect pronunciation. The pronunciation [ent], [emt] is also extended to the singular in dialect speech. In the first person singular, interrogative, one occasionally hears ['arant an], or sometimes [ænt ar] from cultivated speakers, who use this form to avoid the somewhat awkward "am not I," but the usage is not general.
113. The pronunciation of was is [waz] or [woz], or in rapid speech and when the word is lightly stressed, [woz]. The pronunciation [waz] when the word is stressed is scarcely cultivated usage.

For [a] in the diphthong [au], see § 222.
[a1]
114. This sound occurs in father ['farðor], where it is practically universal in American speech, the pronunciations ['færðəa] and ['forðəx] being only occasional and dialectal. But in no other word of the same type does this uniformity in usage obtain. In rather standard usage
 preponderance in favor of ['ræðər]. ['rıбәл] is illiterate and dialectal. In other words, like gather, lather, slather, blather(skite), Mather, the vowel is prevailingly [æ], or [ $æ \cdot]$, with local exceptions in New England in favor of [at], see § 125. [ $\alpha \cdot]$ or [a] occurs also in bother, which forms a fairly satisfactory ear-rime with father, though
 less commonly ['boðəa] also occurs, see \& 111, (3).
115. [at] occurs regularly in words where a is written before 1 m , the 1 being silent, in psalm [saum], palm [paum], balm [barm], calm [karm], alms [amz], see §§ 274-276. In salmon, almond both ['sæmən], ['æmənd] and ['sarmən], ['a!mend] occur. A spelling-pronunciation, with the 1 sounded, is sometimes heard in these two words, but is not general. Before $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{s}$, th, nce, nch, nt, lf, lv, [ $\alpha \mathrm{r}]$ occurs locally in some regions of the East, but generally the sound varies between [at], [ $x$ ], [ $\mathfrak{e}$ ], and in some words [ $: 1$ ], see §§ 124, 128. For au pronounced [a:], see § 186.
116. Before $[\mathrm{x}$ ] final or preceding a consonant, a, often also ea, of the conventional spelling, is [ $\alpha$ !], as hart, heart [hant], star [sta:s], marred [maisd], Clark(e) [klausk], etc., hearth [haut], large [laiddz].
117. In British English certain words spelled e before $\mathbf{r}$ and a consonant are pronounced [at], with the $\mathbf{r}$ silent, as in clerk [kla:k], Hertford ['hartfəd], Derby ['daıbi], but ${ }^{\text {Tin }}$ America words which are so written are pronounced with [ə], and when they are pronounced with [ $\alpha$ ], as in the proper name Clark(e), they are written with a. An exception in American speech is sergeant, which is commonly pronounced ['saudzont], like the proper name Sargent.
118. The standard pronunciation of hearth is [haıs], but [hay $\theta$ ] is also heard as an old-fashioned or dialectal pronunciation.
119. Those speakers who have no [I] before consonants and finally, have [at] in words like hard [hard], part [part], harp [hatp], hearth [ha: $\theta$ ], marred [matd], tar [tat], car [kor]. But some speakers in New England have a vowel in these words which closely approximates [at], and even at times [æ!], e.g., Harvard ['harvad], part [part], etc., see 845 , note, where this sound is indicated by the spelling Havvad.

For the pronunciations tar [tare], car [kare], etc., see § 301.
120. [at], sometimes shortened to [a], occurs in some words of foreign origin, as in lava ['larve], data ['darte], errata [ $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ raitə], bas-relief ['barri'liff], spa [spat], mirage [mi'raız], garage [ga'raı3], popularly often ['gæridz],
though some of these also have Anglicized pronunciations with [æ], e.g., ['lævə], ['dætə], etc. The word vase is either [vasz] or [ve:s], [ve:z], the last being much the most general pronunciation. The pronunciation of tomato is commonly [ta'me $\cdot \mathrm{to}$ ], but [ta'mato] is also in fairly general use, especially as a consciously cultivated pronunciation. The form [to'mæto] is relatively rare. In piano, the form [pr'æno] is general, [pramo] exceptional. For drama three pronunciations are current, ['draumə], ['dræmə] and ['dremme], though the first is the only one widely used. For suave the usual American pronunciation is [swaiv], but in England [swerv].
121. In American place names, like Alabama, Colorado, Nevada, Nebraska, Montana, a pronunciation with [at] in the stressed syllable is sometimes heard, especially in the East, but in the states themselves and in America generally, the words are pronounced [æla'bæmə], [kalə'rædə], [nə'vædə], [nə'bræskə], [mən'tænə].
122. Where cultivated speech regularly has [01], as in caught [kott], bought [bort], haughty ['hortI], naughty ['no:tr], etc., a dialect pronunciation [kart], [batt], ['ha:ti], ['narti], etc., prevails in some regions.
123. In several regions oi the Atlantic seaboard a glide vowel is introduced between a preceding $[\mathrm{k}],[\mathrm{g}]$. and [ $\alpha$ ], as in the Virginia pronunciation of carter [kı'aitə], garden [gíaidən], but this pronunciation is distinctly local or dialectal. See § 217.

## [at]

124. This sound occurs as a simple vowel normally only as a long or half-long vowel, though the short of it
appears as the first element in the diphthong [ai], see § 209. It is heard in certain positions, chiefly in somewhat conscious and academic speech, as a compromise sound between [at], which is rejected as being too 'broad,' and $[æ]$ or [ $æ \cdot]$, a popular sound widely distributed over the whole country, which is rejected as being too 'narrow' or 'flat.' It is cultivated in words written a, sometimes au, before a voiceless continuant, or before a nasal followed by a voiceless stop or continuant, as in grass, half, laugh, path (also before a voiced continuant, as in paths, calves, halves, baths, when the voiced form is a variant, usually the plural, of a head form with a voiceless sound), aunt, branch, can't, dance, fancy, France, shan't, etc.
125. Before a voiced continuant and before a nasal followed by a voiced stop or continuant, a is usually pronounced [æ], as in flange [flænd3], grand [grænd], has [hæz], have [hæv], lather ['æðəə], rather ['ræӘəx], pansy ['pænzı], though speakers who acquire the pronunciation [a] consciously and attempt to carry it through consistently sometimes indulge in pronunciations like ['panzr], [haz], etc.
126. Some exceptions to the above groupings may be noted: cant (noun) is always [kænt], and pant, pantry, panther are scarcely ever heard except as [pænt], ['pæntri], ['pæn日ar]. Some speakers who pronounce aunt as [a:nt], say [ænt] for ant. The word gas is almost universally [gæs], and hath (perhaps because of have and has, with voiced consonants) is always [ $\mathrm{h} æ \theta$ ]. Before [ $[\mathrm{S}]$ a is never [ar], but [æ], as in dash [dæ]], fashion ['fæefon], rational ['ræJanal], etc.
127. When it comes to a question of choice among the several possible pronunciations of dance, laugh, branch,
etc., the decision usually rests between [a:] and [ $¥$ ], [ a :] being ruled out as too 'broad' and as somewhat 'la-di-da.' And when it comes to a question of choice between these two the purist tendency has been to condemn the pronunciation [æ], although this is by far the more common sound in all the words in point in American speech. The result has been to give to [at] extraordinary dictionary and academic prestige in the face of a strongly opposing popular usage. The reasons for this are several: first, that standard British speech and some forms of New England speech have [at] in the words in question; second, that New England has exerted, and to some extent continues to exert, a strong influence upon formal instruction and upon notions of cultivation and refinement throughout the country; and third, that the pronunciation [æ] is often prolonged, or drawled, and nasalized in a way that makes it seem not merely American, but provincially American. To steer between the Scylla of provincialism, [æ]], and the Charybdis of affectation and snobbishness, [at], many conscientious speakers in America cultivate [at]. The writer has tested this sound on many different groups of speakers from various sections of the country, and has never found one who used the sound who did not do so with a certain degree of self-consciousness. If the cult of this sound continues long enough, it may in time come to be a natural and established sound in the language. In the meantime, it seems a pity that so much effort and so much time in instruction should be given to changing a natural habit of speech which is inherently just as good as the one by which the purist would supplant it. Especially in public school instruction it would seem to be wiser to spend time on more important matters in speech than the difference between [hæf] and [haif].

$$
[æ],[æ!]
$$

128. This is the sound, usually a short vowel, universally current in hat [hæt], cab [kæb], bad [bæd], patter ['pætar], grand [grænd], fashion ['fæfən], and a large number of other words. It is also the natural pronunciation of the majority of American speakers in words written a before a voiced or voiceless continuant and before n followed by a voiced or voiceless continuant or stop, as in glass [glæs], bath [bæ日], dance [dænts] or [dæns], can't [kænt], branch [bræntS], etc. The vowel tends to become long in words of this type, and locally and dialectally to become over-long, see $\S \S 82,127$. It is especially likely to be long before a voiced sound, for example, path [ $p æ \theta$ ], but paths [ $p \neq!$ zz].
129. Before $\mathbf{r}$, rr followed by a vowel, orthographic a is usually [æ], as in carry ['kærI], carriage ['kærid3], Clara ['klærə], caret ['kærrt], claret ['klærit], parent ['pærənt], Paris ['pæris], parish ['pærIS], marry ['mærI], tarry (verb) ['tærI]. As an adjective tarry ['tami] retains the vowel of the simple word tar [tais]. Some speakers, however, pronounce $[\varepsilon]$ for a before $\mathbf{r}$ and a vowel, not distinguishing parish and perish, marry and merry. The pronunciation with $[æ]$ is to be preferred. A special grouping must be made for words like chary, fairy, Mary, vary, wary, for which see §§ 133, 141.
130. For radish ['rædry], the popular dialects often have [['redis]. The pronunciation of plait, 'to braid,' is [plæt], but the common form of the word in the sense 'to fold,' 'to make folds,' is pleat [plitt]. Etymologically the words have the same origin and are sometimes confused. For apricot both ['æprr'kat] and ['erpri'kat] are
in general use. The final syllable may be light, [-kat]. For bade, past tense of bid, the standard pronunciation is [bæd], as in I bade him goodbye [aI 'bæd him 'gud'bar], though a spelling-pronunciation [betd] or [berd] is occasionally heard, especially when the word occurs in phrases which have passed out of colloquial use. For banal the common pronunciation is [bæ'næl] or ['bænal], less frequently ['be:nal]. Two pronunciations are current for halibut, ['hæləbət] or ['haləbət]. For raillery both ['re!ləri] and ['relori] are heard, with academic authority in favor of the former; but so far as the word is popular at all, common usage favors the second. Two forms, ['rerfenz] and ['ræenzz], for rations are in use, the second being the more general. For asphalt the common British pronunciation is [æs'fælt] or ['æs'fælt], but in America nearly always the word is ['æs'folt]. The proper name Spokane is locally [spo'kæn], and [spo'kem] is heard from speakers who know the word only as an eye-word.

$$
[e],[e \cdot],[e \cdot]
$$

131. The sound represented by [e] can best be observed in words like chaotic [ke'atrk], archa-ic [ar'ke-rk], or in polysyllables like vacation [ve'ke-Son] where the first vowel is short, the second half-long, Baconian [be'ko•njon], fatally ['fe-toli], bakery ['be-kori], bay-berry ['be•'berrI], pay-roll ['pe-'ro•1], etc. In some of these words the quantity varies from short to half-long according to the degree of stress. High vowels like [e] and [i] are less likely to be obviously prolonged than mid or low vowels, and one is consequently often in doubt whether to take them as long or short.
132. In monosyllables with a full stress, the vowel lengthens and frequently becomes diphthongal. This is
especially apparent when the vowel is final, as in day [deI], they [ KeI ], whey [mer], etc., and before voiced consonants, as in fade [ferd], grave [greiv], haze [herz], etc., see § 207. Before voiceless consonants, however, even in stressed monosyllables, the diphthongal quality is very slight, and often not audibly present at all. Compare, for example, rate with raid (the spelling of raid is not significant), or face with phase, or waif with wave, waive. If the vowel is diphthongized at all, it is more likely to be diphthongal in raid, phase, wave, waive, than in rate, face, waif. But with many speakers the diphthongal quality, if present at all, is so slight as not to be appreciated by the ear. For such speakers the sound is to be recorded simply as [e:]. No questions of propriety in usage are raised by the variation between [ e ] ] and [ er ], the difference being so slight that it does not attract attention to itself.
133. A clear [e]-vowel rarely occurs before [r], but is sometimes heard in formal speech in vary (to distinguish the word from very), Mary (as distinguished from merry), chary (as distinguished from cherry), parent, vagary [va'ge.ri], wary, etc., where the spelling exerts an influence on the pronunciation, see § 129.
134. For patent both ['pe:tənt] and ['pætənt] occur, the former when the word has the sense 'obvious,' 'apparent.' But latent is always ['lestont]. For quoit the common popular pronunciation is [kwest], but the cultivated and dictionary pronunciation is [kwort] or [kort]. The common standard pronunciation for patriot, patriotism, patriotic, in America is ['pe-tritt], ['pe-trie'tizm], [pe•tri'atik], but [pætr-] is also heard, more frequently in patriotism, patriotic, than in patriot. For Danish the standard pronunciation is ['demry], the long vowel being
maintained by the analogy of Dane. In popular speech, however, the vowel is often shortened, as in ['dænr]], and as it is in both popular and cultivated speech in Spanish ['spænif] as compared with Spain [spen]. Cf. Polish and polish, § 179. For glacier American speech has ['gletfrai], ['glerfer], but ['glesjo] anly as a Briticism. A pronunciation ['glessiox] may be heard occasionally in formal speech. The pronunciation of aye, 'ever', is [et], [er], as distinguished from ay, 'yes', which is [aI]. The plural of ay is spelled ayes but pronounced [azz]. For again, against, the usual pronunciations are [ ${ }^{\prime}$ gen], [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'genst], though [ $\sigma^{\prime}$ gem], [ ${ }^{\prime}$ gemst] are occasionally heard, probably because of the spelling. For always the standard pronunciation is ['ol'we:z] or ['ol'we'z], but in popular speech the word often becomes ['olwaz], ['olwiz], and sometimes ['olez]. For Isaiah both [ar'ze:ə] and [r'zare] are in current use, the former being the more general.
135. This is the common sound of English e in get [get], ten [ten], bend [bend], lense [lenz], tread [tred], breath [bre $]$ ], meadow ['medo], educate ['edju'ke•t], and hosts of other words. The current pronunciation of again, against, [ $\sigma^{\prime}$ gen], [ ${ }^{\prime}$ genst], is occasionally changed under the influence of spelling to [ $\sigma^{\prime} \mathrm{ge} \cdot \mathrm{n}$ ], [ ${ }^{\prime}$ ge nst ] or [ $\sigma^{\prime}$ gern], [ $\partial^{\prime}$ gernst]. Before [r] followed by a vowel, e is commonly [ $\varepsilon$ ], as in very ['verr], perish ['perif], terrible ['teribl], ferry ['ferr], merit ['merrt]. For [ $\varepsilon$ ] in words of this type pronounced [ $\Lambda$ ], see § 201. For hero, zero, Nero, etc., see § 168.
136. In a few learned words, like serum, Ceres, series, e before r is [i] or [I], likewise cereal, serial ['siriol], serious ['sirres], period ['pirred]. The spelling of bury ['beri] is
exceptional. As the name of a town in England, Bury is pronounced ['bjuarr]. A variant form yelk [jelk] exists by the side of yolk [jo:k].
137. The preterite of the verb eat is always spelled ate and almost universally pronounced [ert] in America, but occasionally [ Et ], this being a generally current British pronunciation, see New English Dictionary, and MichaelisJones, Phonetic Dictionary, under this word. Most Americans regard [et] as dialectal. The proper name, as well as the common noun, Jenny, jenny, is always ['dzenr] in cultivated American speech, but ['d $\mathrm{d}_{3} \mathrm{mI}$ ] for Jenny is good British usage. So also ['krmist] for chemist and derivatives is good British usage, but in America the word is always ['kemist].
138. In epoch the stressed vowel is usually short, giving ['epak], but sometimes in very formal pronunciation the word becomes ['i:pak]. For tenet, tenable the usual pronunciation is ['tenrt], ['tenəbl], occasionally ['timit], ['timabl]. For deaf the standard pronunciation is [def], but [dirf], which is an older historical survival, is often heard in the popular dialects. In Webster's day, [diif] was the general pronunciation, see Dissertations, p. 128. As an adjective cleanly is pronounced ['klenlr], as an adverb, ['klimli]. In pretty, England, English, the standard pronunciation is ['pritr], ['mgglənd], ['mglif], the occasional pronunciation with $[\varepsilon]$ being artificial and due to the spelling.
139. For get [get] and derivatives popular English frequently has [git]; so also [ t Iist] for chest [ t [est], [jit] for yet [jet], [ n 'stid] for instead [ n 'sted], and similarly with other words.

Before [g], in the popular dialects, [er] is often heard for standard [ $\mathrm{\varepsilon}$ ], as in the pronunciations [erg], [berg], [leig], ['nst'meig] for standard egg [eg], beg [beg], leg [leg], nutmeg ['nat'meg], etc.

For keg [keg] a frequent dialect form is [kæg]. So also yes [jes] is very often [jæs] in popular pronunciation.

## [ e ]

140. This symbol represents the long vowel commonly heard before r in such words as there [ $\delta \varepsilon \pi]$, where [ $M \varepsilon!\mathrm{I}]$, dare [dera], fair [feır], hare, hair [hem], pare, pair, pear [pen], lair [leı]. These words may also be heard with a
 with loss of the final consonant, [ $\delta \varepsilon \because \partial]$, [мع:ə], [deəコ], etc.

On the organic difference between $[\varepsilon]$ and [ $\varepsilon 1]$, see above, §§ 54, 55.
141. The pronunciation of chary, fairy, hairy, Mary, vary, wary is ['ţerri], ['ferm], [herri], ['merri], ['verri], ['werrI], which distinguishes chary from cherry, fairy from ferry, hairy from Harry [hæri], Mary from merry, marry, vary from very, wary from wherry. On words of this type pronounced with [e], see § 133.
142. There is considerable variation among cultivated speakers in the quality of the vowel in words of the type of there, where, etc., degrees being present all the way from $[\varepsilon!]$ to $[æ t]$, or when the vowel is short as in berry, very, etc., from $[\varepsilon]$ to $[æ]$. But pronunciations like there [ $\mathrm{X} æ \mathrm{I}$ ], hair [hæı], stair [stæ!u], or very ['væri], terrible ['tæribl] are scarcely to be recommended for imitation.
143. The slight glide vowel inserted before the [ x$]$ in

is not pronounced is often prolonged and even becomes [a], e.g., fair ['feı]] or ['fe:a], hair ['herə] or [h'eia], there ['סe:ə] or ['סॄ:a]. The vowel [a] in such pronunciations often receives a fairly heavy stress. These latter usages are nowhere general in America, though sometimes cultivated in imitation of what is taken to be Eastern American or British usage.
144. In words compounded with aero-, as in aeroplane, aeronaut, aerostat, etc., the standard formal pronunciation of the first syllable is ['eıərə-] or ['عəərə-]. But ['errə-] is quite generally used. The final vowel of the syllable may also be heard as [o] in careful speech. The pronunciation ['eria-] is popular and dialectal.
145. In were the common pronunciation is [wox] or [Wat], though the pronunciation [weıI], also [wæıI], is sometimes cultivated in precise speech.

## [ə]

146. The vowel [ə] is a sound of wide occurrence in unstressed position, and is the sound which vowels in general tend to become when, as in rapid speech, they are somewhat obscured. It occurs in all positions in the word, initially, medially and finally, e.g., about [ $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ baut], finally ['farneli], zebra ['zibre], Cuba [kjubə], sofa ['sofə], a man [ $\sigma^{\prime}$ imæn], Iceland ['aislond], etc. Certain words in which standard speech retains a relatively clear vowel in final unstressed syllables, occur with this obscure vowel in dialect speech, e.g., dialect yellow ['jele], potato [pə'tertə], tomato [to'me:tə], piano [pr'ænə], window ['wində], fellow ['felə], thorough [' $\theta$ Arə], always ['olwəz].
147. In careless and rapid speech some speakers have a tendency to omit [ə] where cultivated speech retains it.

This is especially noticeable when [ 0 ] is preceded by a vowel or [r], as in poem, in popular pronunciation [porm], in standard speech ['posem], or ['po:əm] or ['porm], see § 173; moral, popularly ['morl], in standard speech ['morel]; towel, popularly [taul], in standard speech ['tavel]; quarrel, popularly ['kwoll], in standard speech ['kworal]; diary, popularly ['darri], in standard speech ['darrri]; diamond, popularly ['darmənd], in standard speech ['daıəmənd]; real, really, popularly [risl], ['ri:1]], in standard speech ['riəl], ['riəlI], sometimes also ['riel], ['rialr]; cruel, popularly [kruil], in standard speech ['kruiel]; violet, popularly ['varlot], ['va:lat], in standard speech ['vaiolit], very formally ['vaiolet].

The pronunciation of deal, seal, peal, etc., as [diil], [si:l], [pill] is standard, the spelling ea in these words being a representation of what is historically a simple vowel, whereas in real the spelling ea, which looks the same, is of entirely different origin. It is derived from an originally dissyllabic word, with the syllabic break between the two vowels, and standard speech continues to maintain the word as a dissyllable.
148. The final unstressed syllable of words ending in a is pronounced [ 9 ] in standard speech, but frequently [ I ] in popular speech, as in opera ['apərə], era ['irro] or ['rre], extra ['ekstrə], America [a'merikə], Noah ['no:ə], Martha
 ['nost], ['masit], etc. For Iowa the common pronunciation is ['arowə], dialectally sometimes ['arəwI].
149. For cupola ['kjupələ], popular pronunciation frequently has a transposition of the unstressed vowels, giving ['kjupo'lo]. In cocoa ['kotko] the final vowel is silent; the word is a metathesized form of cacao, but this
original form of the word is now used only in scientific writing．When compounded with－nut，the word is fre－ quently spelled coco－，as in coco－nut［＇korko－＇nst］．The word curaçao［＇kjurg＇sato］，derived from the name of a Dutch island in the Carribean，is commonly metathesized into curaçoa［＇kjurə＇soəə］or［＇kjurə＇sou］．

150．As an inflectional ending，$e$ in the ending－es is always silent when the $s$ is voiceless，as in rites，writes （third singular of the verb）［rarts］，likes［larks］，rates ［retts］，etc．，and it is silent also when the sis voiced，ex－ cept when the syllable－es is preceded by［s］，［z］，［S］or［3］， in which case e［ $\boldsymbol{2}$ ］is pronounced，as in pieces［pirsoz］， prizes［praizzz］，wishes［＇wijəz］，stages［sterdzoz］．

151．Between［ l$]$ and a succeeding［ m ］a vowel［ e ］is sometimes present in popular speech which does not appear in standard speech，as in elm［عlm］，film［film］， realm［relm］，etc．，pronounced［＇عləm］，［＇frlom］，［＇relom］， etc．So also［＇æ日大＇lit］，［ $æ \theta \partial \partial^{\prime}$ letik］for athlete［＇æ日＇lit］， athletic［ $æ \theta^{\prime}$ letik］．

152．Before［l］or［［］］，and after a vowel，a slight glide ［ə］，［ə］is sometimes present，as in such pronunciations as stole［＇storl］，four［forar］，milk［mialk］，dart［daıart］，etc．， but this sound is so slight in standard pronunciation that it does not seem necessary to represent it phonetically， see $\S \S 160,167$ ．It is often exaggerated in the speech of young children，who prolong also the preceding vowel．

153．Before［r］，intervocalic，a very distinct［ə］is present in British speech，especially noticeable to American ears when the vowel preceding $[\mathrm{r}]$ is $[\mathrm{r}],[\varepsilon]$ or $[\mathrm{ar}]$ ，as in period［＇piəriəd］，peeress［＇pirris］，parent［＇pદərənt］，miry ［＇marəri］，Byron［＇barəron］；but this［ə］is scarcely ever
heard in America, the words cited being pronounced ['piriod], ['pris] or ['pires], ['pærənt] or ['perənt], ['marri], ['barron]. In the adjective form of fire [farəa], which is spelled fiery, a pronunciation ['farorr] may be heard, but also ['farri]. But wiry from wire ['warex] is always ['warri].

## [ə]

154. This symbol stands for the short inverted vowel sound, which is to be clearly distinguished from [ə]. The sound appears in stressed and unstressed syllables, and is represented in conventional spelling by various vowel letters before $\mathbf{r}$ final or followed by a consonant, as in bird [boad], burr [box], sir [sex], fir, fur [fəa], heard [hoad], person ['pəasən], serpent ['səдpənt], worthy ['waュঠı], myrtle ['martl], etc. The vowel is normally short, but may be prolonged in exceptional instances, as in the somewhat exotic word myrrh [mor] or [mər]. For iron, tired, hired, etc., see § 304 .
155. When [ x ] is not pronounced before the consonant in bird, heard, person, etc., the vowel is usually [ 4 t ]. When final $[\mathrm{x}$ ] is not pronounced, it often leaves a weak [ $\partial$ ] as its survival, burr [bs: b ], fir, fur [ $\mathrm{f} \wedge: \rho]$, etc. Final $\mathbf{r}$ in unstressed syllables when not pronounced is preceded by [ə], as in never ['nevə], feather ['feðə], etc. In affected speech this vowel sometimes becomes [a], see § 143.
156. For girl the current pronunciation is [gerl] or [gail], but [geall], [gæal], [gisl] are sometimes heard and are often cultivated as refined pronunciations.
157. For courteous, courtezan the usual pronunciation is ['keatres], ['kaxtezən], but for courtier, ['koatiex], ['kortfor] are more general.
158. For [ə] of the standard speech in words containing [ x ] followed by a consonant, in New York and its vicinity a diphthong is heard, commonly represented in dialect stories by the spelling oi, e.g., thoid, 'third,' foist, 'first,' boid, 'bird.' The phonetic elements of this diphthong are usually [o] followed by [I]. This pronunciation has not made its way into cultivated usage. ${ }^{1}$
159. For very, terrible, syrup, etc., pronounced ['vaxi], ['taxibl], ['sorəp], etc., see § 201. The pronunciation of [ə] for [ə] before [r] followed by a vowel in unstressed syllables is to be avoided, e.g., history ['histori] pronounced ['histori].
160. Between [ar], [au] and a succeeding final [I], a vowel [ə] is regularly present in accented words, hire and higher ['haior] being homonyms; so also flour, flower ['flauer] are homonymous. Not infrequently a slovenly kind of pronunciation is heard in which this [ə] is omitted and the preceding diphthong is reduced to [at], flower, flour being pronounced [flati], fire pronounced [fari], as though it were the same as far, our, hour pronounced [a:i]. The word our in unstressed position in colloquial speech is very commonly [a:x], so commonly that perhaps one cannot characterize it as slovenly. But its phonetic form is due entirely to the fact that it is slightly stressed. In stressed position the diphthong [aU] is never [a:] in standard speech.

$$
[\mathrm{i}],[\mathrm{i}],[\mathrm{i}]
$$

161. The vowel [i] is heard only in polysyllables, like expediency [ $\varepsilon k s^{\prime}$ pidiənsi], where the stress on the accented syllable is comparatively light, or in unstressed syllables,

[^2]as in eternal [i'təmnal], economy [i'kanəmi], œosophagus [i'safages]. The half-long vowel may be recognized in compounds, like tea-table ['ti'te-bl], and the long vowel in words containing full stress, as in tea [tii], he [hit], key, quay [kit], deed [dird], bean [biin], priest [prist], convene [kən'vim], eagle ['i:gl], Egypt ['itd3rpt].
162. For sleek, creek, clique the standard pronunciations are [slitk], [kritk], [klitk], though [slik], [krik], [klik] are widely current in familiar colloquial use, and [slik], in the sense 'cunning,' 'sly,' may be said to have passed into general use. The pronunciation [fa'tig] for fatigue [fa'tig] is not cultivated usage. For amenable the standard pronunciation is [ $a^{\prime}$ misnəbl], but for amenity almost always [ $\sigma^{\prime}$ meniti], though sometimes [ $\sigma^{\prime}$ miminti].
163. In words of Greek origin commonly spelled $æ$, as in Eschylus, 压sculapius, æsthetic, anapæst, the usual pronunciation in America is ['eskilas], [eskju'lerpres], [es' $\theta$ etrk], ['ænəpest], but [iis-] in England and not infrequently also in America. Esop is always ['i'sap], and the spelling œ is usually [i] or [it], as in œosophagus [i'safəgas], Enone [i'nomi], œcumenical [ikju'menrkl], ©dipus ['i:dipes], though pronunciations with [ $\varepsilon$ ], as in ['edrpes], [ $\varepsilon k j u^{\prime}$ menikl], are also heard.
164. For Elizabethan both [əlizo'bi:өən] and [əlizo'beधon] occur. For scenic the common pronunciation is ['senik], though ['simnk], which is the more usual British pronunciation, and is of course supported by the analogy of scene [si:n], is sometimes heard. For fetid, fetish both ['fitid]], ['fittri] and ['fetrd], ['fetri] are current, and for leisure both ['liizer] and ['lezar]. For either, neither the general pronunciation is ['i:Әəa], ['nirðəa], but oc-
casionally ['arбər], ['narðəx] are heard, often as a conscious refined pronunciation. It is popular and general nowhere in America. For inveigle the usual pronunciation is [ m 'viigl], but sometimes also [ m 'vergl]. For penal the pronunciation is ['pinnal], for penalize either ['pisnolazz] or ['penelarz], for penalty always ['penolti].
165. Words containing the prefix pre- as a stressed syllable usually have the pronunciation [pri-] when the syllable is logically important, as in clear compounds like prehistoric ['prihis'torik], predigested ['pridar'dzestrd], prefix ['prifiks], prepay ['pri'per], also in a few somewhat learned words, the etymological origins of which are still felt, as in precinct ['pri'sinkt], prefect ['pri'fekt], prelude ['prilluid], also sometimes ['prel'u:d]. Otherwise the syllable is usually pronounced [pre-], though custom is not completely uniform, some words like predecessor, predilection, premature, presentation being pronounced either [pre-] or [pri-]. The pronunciation with [pre-] is the more common, and in some words, e.g., predicate, preference, prejudice, preparation, preposition, preterite, it is the only one in good use.
166. In the ending -itis, as in appendicitis, neuritis, phlebitis, meningitis, etc., both [-ittes] and [-artos] occur; also angina [æn'dzimə], [æn'dzarnə], better ['ændzrnə], Argentine ['ardzon'tim] or ['audzən'tam], adamantine [ædə'mæn'tim] or [ædə'mæn'tam]. For oblique the more usual pronunciation is [o'blitk], but also, less frequently, [o'blark].
167. Before $[\mathrm{r}]$, $[\mathrm{x}]$, $[\mathrm{i}]$ is commonly lowered to $[\mathrm{I}]$ and a glide vowel sometimes inserted between [ I$]$ and $[\mathrm{r}],[\mathrm{I}]$, as in cereal, serial ['sirrial], hear [hier], hearing ['hiorm],
pier, peer [pror], tier, tear [tiox]; but some speakers tend to preserve a clear [i]-sound in a few words, usually of learned character, as in eery ['iori], era ['iərə], query ['kwiorr], series ['siəriz] or ['sieriz]. So also dreary, weary are sometimes pronounced ['driari], ['wiori]. This glide vowel before $[\mathrm{r}],[\mathrm{x}]$ is often not present at all in American speech, and is in general much less marked as a characteristic of American than of British speech.
168. In hero, Nero, zero a clear [i]-vowel is generally maintained, giving ['his'ro], ['nis'ro], ['zii'ro], but many speakers lower the vowel to [ I ], as in ['hi'ro], ['ni'ro], ['zI'ro].

## [I]

169. This is the short sound commonly current in sit [sit], mission ['miJan], timid ['timid], ink [mpk], rich [rit]], etc. In stressed syllables it is generally written $\mathbf{i}$, though also y in lyric ['lirik], syllable ['silabl], synagogue ['singgog], and some others.
170. For $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{y}$ followed by r and a vowel, the standard pronunciation is [I], as in dirigible ['drridzrbl], miracle ['mirəkl], mirror ['mirer], sirup, syrup ['srrəp], syringe ['sirind3], also [si'rind3], tyranny ['tirani], virile ['viril], also ['varril], exceptions to this rule being cases in which i , y is pronounced [ar], as in gyrate, pirate, siren, tirade, tyrant, virile, virus. On i, y followed by r and a vowel pronounced [ $\Lambda$ ], [ə] in popular speech, see § 201.
171. For been the normal pronunciation is [bin], though [bim] is sometimes heard as a precise or consciously cultivated pronunciation. For breeches, breeching the usual pronunciation is ['britfoz], ['britfrn], but a spelling-
pronunciation ['brittSaz], ['britffin] is sometimes cultivated. In busy ['bizi], business ['biznis], the spelling $\mathbf{u}$ is exceptional for [I].
172. There is a distinctly audible difference between stressed and unstressed [I], as, for example, in the two syllables of pity, city, which for lack of a separate symbol for each sound, we represent by ['piti], ['sitr]. The same applies to initial unstressed syllables, as in desist [dr'zist], begin [br'gin], initial [r'nijal], etc. The unstressed [I] is more relaxed, as one would expect it to be, than stressed [r], and in a phonetic transcription of greater precision than the one here employed, each sound would have its own symbol.
173. In unstressed syllables, this sound occurs for a, e, $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{u}$ of the conventional spelling, though usage in many words varies widely, some speakers pronouncing [I], some $[\varepsilon]$ and some the obscure vowel $[ə]$ :
(1) before the stressed syllable, as in begin [br'gin] or [ba'gin], debate [dr'bert] or [da'bert], decide [dr'said] or [də'said], engage [in'ge:dz] or [en'gerdz], except [ Ik 'sept] or [ $\varepsilon \mathrm{k}^{\prime}$ sept], elect [ $\mathrm{I}^{\prime}$ lekt], [ $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ lekt] or [ $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ lekt].
(2) after the stressed syllable, as in the preterites of verbs, added ['ædid], ['æded] or ['ædəd]; disgusted [dis'gastid], [dis'gnsted] or [dis'gastod]; in a variety of nouns and adjectives of different endings, as in naked ['ne:kid], ['neiked] or ['neikəd]; sonnet ['sanrt], ['sanet] or ['sanət]; rabbit ['ræbit], ['ræbet] or ['ræbət]; prelate ['prelit] (very formally ['prelet]), ['prelet] or ['prelot]; minute (noun) ['minit], ['minet] or ['minət]; honest ['anist], ['anest] or ['anəst]; lettuce ['letis], ['letes] or ['letas]; palace ['pælis], ['pæles] or [pælas]; goodness ['gudnis], ['gudnes] or
['gudnes]; riches ['ritSIz], ['ritfez] or ['rrtfaz]; poem ['porm], ['posem] or ['po:am]; vowel ['vaull], ['vauel] or ['vaual]; college ['kalid3], ['kaled3] (very formally ['kaled3]); courage ['karidz], ['kared3]; usage ['ju:sid3], ['jussed3]; damage ['dæmId3], ['dæmed३ె]; manage ['mænId3], ['mæned3]; orange ['orind3], ['orend3] or ['orənd3].
"Philadelphia, New York City, and some parts of the West and South," says Grandgent, ${ }^{1}$ often substitute [ ${ }^{2}$ ] for [ I ] in final syllables, as in ['gudnes] for ['gudnis], ['anest] for ['anist], I've got it [aiv 'gat et] for [aiv 'gat it], ['pælas] for ['pælis], but "in the rest of the country this pronunciation is regarded as extremely vulgar." Tests which the writer has applied to speakers from regions here excepted show that the statement as to the vulgarity of [ 0 ] in final syllables is exaggerated and does not now apply. Such pronunciations as ['pæles], ['anəst] are current throughout the country, and cannot now be described as extremely vulgar by any standards generally accepted.
174. For adobe, prairie the standard pronunciation is [ $a^{\prime}$ dorbr], ['premri]. For Cincinnati both [smsa'næti] and [sinso'næte] occur, the former being locally and generally the more common pronunciation. For final a [ $\quad$ ] pronounced [r] in popular speech, see above, § 148. The desire to avoid this popular pronunciation of final a [ə] as [I] at all hazards sometimes leads speakers to pronounce final [ 2 ] when cultivated standard speech has [ I ], and this probably explains a pronunciation like [smss'nætə]. So also occasionally [ $\mathrm{mI}^{\prime} \mathrm{zure}$ ] for standard Missouri [mízuri], and even ['prerre] for ['premr] has been observed (Sturte-

[^3]vant，Linguistic Change，p．83）．${ }^{1}$ For Ypsilanti［rpsi－ ＇lænti］occasionally［rpsi＇lænte］is heard．It may be that the pronunciation of words like Cincinnati，Missouri， Ypsilanti has been affected by the analogy of many other place names like Nebraska，Montana，Nevada，etc．， which regularly have［ə］for the final vowel．Final un－ stressed $\mathbf{y}$ ，both in common and proper nouns，is always ［I］，as in heavy，busy，Albany，Schenectady，etc．

175．For jaundice［＇dzondrs］the popular dialects often have［＇d弓əndəaz］，［＇d弓ændəaz］．For Italian popular speech commonly has［＇ar＇tæljən］，but standard speech only ［I＇tæljən］．

$$
[0],[0 \cdot],[0,]
$$

176．This vowel is heard as a short sound，sometimes as the stressed vowel of polysyllables，as in locomo－ tive［＇loka＇motiv］，connotative［kə＇notətiv］，in unstressed syllables，as in obedient［o＇bitdınt］，approbation［æpro－ ＇berfjn］，yellow［＇jelo］，window［＇windo］，piano［pi＇æno］， and in secondarily stressed syllables when the vowel may be short or half－long，as in the compounds dough－nut ［＇do｀＇nst］，tow－path［＇to•＇pæ日］，go－cart［＇go•＇kast］，etc． On the weakening of unstressed［o］to［ə］，see above，§ 146.

177．When the sound is fully stressed and long，and especially when it is final，it tends to become diphthongal， starting with［ 0 ］and closing with［ J ］，as in dough，doe ［dou］，toe，tow［tou］，flow，floe［flou］，château［ $\mathrm{s}^{\prime}$ tou］， etc．Before consonants，as in rote，rode，roll，etc．，the diphthongal quality of the vowel is always less marked

[^4]and often not present at all. This sound is much less diphthongal in American than in British speech. In the latter a great variety of diphthongal shadings occur, some of them familiar in the exaggerated representations of Englishmen and their speech on the American stage. In the speech of many, perhaps of most, Americans there is scarcely any trace of diphthongal quality in the sound, which may in most instances be represented simply as [ 0 I] or [ $0 \cdot$ ]. See § 218.
178. In substantive compounds with pro-, the prefix, when stressed, in some words is regularly pronounced ['pro-], as in probate, proceeds, profile, programme, prolix ['proliks] or [pro'liks], prologue, pronoun, protest; in others, regularly [a], or sometimes [ 0 ], as in problem, project, prophet, prospect, proverb; and in still others, the pronunciation varies between [o] and [a], the latter being the more general, as in process, produce, product, progress, provost.
179. For sloth, slothful the standard pronunciation is [slo: $\theta$ ], ['slo:8fel], but a variant pronunciation [slo: $\theta$ ], ['slo:ifal] is not infrequent. The pronunciation of loam in standard speech is [lo:m], but frequently [lu:m] in dialect speech. An archaic spelling shew, shew-bread is sometimes met with for [Sor], ['Sor-'bred]. The proper name Polish is ['po:lr]], following the analogy of Pole [poil], but the verb polish is ['palif]. For bowie- in the compound bowie-knife both ['bori-] and ['buir-] occur. The usual standard pronunciation for shone is [Sorn] or [Soun], but [Son], [Som], even [ $\int \wedge n$ ] are occasionally heard. The pronunciation of whole as [hal] is dialectal.
180. In Eastern New England, a number of words which elsewhere have a long vowel are pronounced with
a short [o]-vowel which is slightly more fronted than the ordinary vowel, giving a mid half-front tense rounded vowel. "This vowel is used by educated New England speakers in about fifty common words and their derivatives, and it certainly prevails in the cultivated usage of this region in Polk, polka, whole, and probably in both, folks, Holmes, most, only, and some others." ${ }^{1}$

## [0]

181. This sound is a short vowel, and may be best observed in polysyllables, where it may be stressed, as in auditory ['odr'torr], Audubon ['odubən], or in unstressed syllables, as in audacious [ $0^{\prime}$ de: $\int \partial s$ ], authentic [ $0^{\prime} \theta$ entrk], automatic [0to'mætık], etc.
182. It occurs also with some speakers in many syllables written 0 , as in hot, not, nod, log, soft, moss, on, etc., or a after $\mathbf{w}$, as in water, watch, etc., but usage varies in the value which it gives to the vowel in these words, see above, $\S 110,111$, and the vowel also varies in length from short to half-long or long, in some words, as in soft [soft], moss [mos], dog [dog], etc., pronounced also [so:ft], [moss], [do:g], or even dragged out in popular speech until they are over-long.
183. In words written o before [ n ], the customary pronunciation is [ 0 ], as in long [lon], song [son], throng [ $\mathrm{r} \mathrm{r} \boldsymbol{y}$ ], wrong [ron], but occasional speakers have [a] instead of [o]. The pronunciation [lom], [som], [ $\theta$ rom], [ro:n], etc., is heard only in dialect speech.
${ }^{1}$ Grandgent, Publications of the Modern Language Association, Vol. VII (New Series), p. 217 (1899). This vowel is dialectally common in Eastern New England in many words like road, coat, boat, colt, post, etc.
184. For squalor the usual pronunciation is ['skwolex], though ['skwellor] is sometimes heard. For swollen the common form is ['swolen], but very frequently also ['swo:lən].

## [ ${ }^{2}$ ]

185. This sound occurs in many syllables under full stress, as in law [lor], draw [drot], taut, taught [tort], thought [ $\theta 01 t$ ], talk [tork], naught [nort], all [orl], salt [soilt], fault [follt], Paul [porl], etc.; also in dissyllables like augur ['orgex], aural ['orrol], author ['o:OəI], audit ['ordtt]; and in compounds, like strawberry ['stro'berr], chalk-line ['t $50 \cdot \mathrm{k}$ 'lain], in which the vowel may be long or half-long. On the organic difference between [0] and [01], see above, \$\& 62, 63.

For sauce (noun), saucy the standard pronunciation is [sois], ['sossi], but in the sense 'impertinent speech,' 'impertinent,' popular pronunciation commonly has [sæs], ['sæsi].
186. In words of the type of daunt, flaunt, gaunt, gauntlet, haunt, launch, taunt, the common pronunciation is [dornt], [flomt], [gomt], etc., but some speakers say [daint], [fla:nt], [gaint], and for some words, as in [hænt], [æntS], a pronunciation with [æ] or [æ!] is current in dialect speech. For laundry the current pronunciation is ['lomdrr], with an occasional variant pronunciation ['la:ndri]. For Laura the usual pronunciation is ['lorre], but also sometimes ['larre].
187. The pronunciation of caught, bought, talk, taught, etc., with [ $\alpha \cdot]$ or [ $\alpha$ t], is current in some regions locally, but is not heard in standard cultivated English. So also the pronunciations ['darter], ['slartex] for daughter ['dortes], slaughter ['slorter] are provincialisms.
188. A number of Indian proper names, in secondarily stressed syllables written aw, ah, a, have [or], as in Choctaw ['tfak'tot], Kenesaw ['kenə'sot], Utah ['ju'tor], Altamaha ['æltəmə'hot], Omaha ['omə'hot], Ottawa ['atə'wot], etc.
189. Before $[x]$ followed by a consonant, when the [x] is not pronounced, $o$ is pronounced [ 0 t ], as in corn [koin], force [fors], port [port], etc. But the pronunciation [hors] for horse, spelled hoss in dialect stories, is commonly regarded as illiterate and dialectal, though here, as in many instances, it is really the visual and not the audible form of the word that is objected to. When the [ x ] is pronounced the preceding vowel is only half-long or short.
190. Before [r] followed by a vowel, the usual pronunciation of 0 is [ $\cdot \cdot]$ or [ 0 o ], as in glory ['glorrI], story ['sto $\cdot \mathrm{rx}$ ], tory ['to•rI], oral ['oral], not distinguished in prununciation from aural, moral ['morrl]. But some speakers, retaining an older pronunciation probably under the influence of spelling, in at least some of these words have [ $0 \cdot 1$ or [or], as in glory ['glo•ri], story ['sto $\cdot \mathrm{rr}$ ], tory ['to $\cdot \mathrm{rr}$ ], oral ['o.ral], ete.
191. Before $[x]$ final, o (ou, oo, oa) is pronounced [ $0 \cdot 1$ ] or [ot], as in store [sto•I], more [morI], pore, pour [porf], fore, four, for [forx], door [do•r], floor [flo•r], roar [ro•r], sore, soar [so•I]. See § 197. These words might be written also ['sto $\cdot$.ar], etc., though with most speakers the glide vowel is very slight.

The preposition for is often [for] in rapid speech, written fur in dialect stories.

$$
[\mathbf{u}],\left[\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{t}}\right]
$$

192. This sound is of wide occurrence, both as long and short. As a long, it tends to become diphthongal,
[vu], but this pronunciation for what is commonly [ut] is not general enough in American speech to call for frequent representation. The quantity of the sound varies according to its surrounding from short to half-long and long. Instances of [ $u$ ] occur in polysyllables like recrudescence [rikru'desons], altruistic [æltru'istrk], absolutely ['æbsə'lutli], also ['æbsə'ljutlı], Lusitania [lusi'te-njə], etc. When the sound is long it is commonly represented in conventional spelling by oo, as in boot [bust], cool [kuil], soon [suin], spool [spuil], but also ou, as in group [gru!p], soup [suip], troupe [trump]; $u$, as in dune [du:n], lunar ['lu:nex], rule [ru:l], rune [rum]; o, as in do [du1], to [tu:]; ui as in bruit [brutt], fruit [fru:t], suit [sutt], also [sju:t], etc.
193. In some words usage varies widely between [u] and [ 0 ], the resulting groups being very unsystematic. All speakers say goose [guis], mood [muid], moon [mu:n], for example, and all say book [buk], foot [fut], good [gud], shook [Suk], stood [stud]. But in the following words, which is not an exhaustive list, usage varies between [u], long or short, and [ U ], and in popular use, one or two words have [ A ]: aloof, butcher, boot, broom, coop, Cooper, food, groom, hoof, hoop, Hooper, nook, proof, rood, roof, rook, room, rooster, root, soon, soot, spook, spoon, woof. ${ }^{1}$

Of these words, according to the writer's observation, the following prevailingly have [ur]: aloof, boot, broom, food, groom, proof, roof, rood, room, rooster, root, soon, spook, spoon, woof; the following prevailingly have [ U :
${ }^{1}$ The first two words in this list are included on the authority of Grandgent, Die Neueren Sprachen, II, 457, but for aloof the writer has heard only [a'lu:f], and for butcher only ['butfax], or ['bu:tfax] so rarely that this form of the word seems scarcely to be regarded as a current American pronunciation.
butcher, coop, Cooper, hoof, hoop, Hooper, nook, rook, soot (also in popular pronunciation [sst]).

The pronunciations boot [but], broom [brum], food [fud], soon [sun], spoon [spun], etc., for words in the first group must be characterized as local or provincial, but coop [kupp], Cooper ['kuipar], hoof [huif], hoop [husp], etc., for words in the second group, are supported by the usage of many cultivated speakers, whose pronunciation is probably influenced to some extent by the spelling.

On the differences of usage between [ $\mathrm{u}:$ ] and [ju], see §§ 229-231.
194. For acoustic both [ $\partial^{\prime}$ kustrik] and [ $\partial^{\prime}$ kaustrk] are in common use, the former being perhaps the more general. For bouquet the standard pronunciation is [bu'keI], the pronunciation [bo'ker] or ['bo'ker] being old-fashioned or rustic. For brooch both [brustS] and [brottS] occur. For route [ruit], tour [tuis], [tuiex], wound [wuind], the popular dialects often have [raut], [tauer], [waund]. The spelling of zoology, aided by the abbreviation Zoo, results sometimes in a pronunciation [zu'alod3I], the standard pronunciation being [zo'alad3I].

## [ u$]$

195. This is normally only a short vowel and is commonly written $\mathbf{u}$ in the conventional alphabet, as in bull [bul], bush [buS], cushion ['kujon], full [ful], put [put], as a term in golf pronounced [ $\mathrm{p} \Lambda \mathrm{t}$ ], tulle [tul], etc. For supple the usual pronunciation is ['sapl], but ['supl] occurs commonly in dialect speech and occasionally in cultivated speech. For brusque both [brusk] and [brask] are current, with the preference in favor of [brusk]. For fulsome the usual pronunciation is ['fulsom], but ['falsom] is also countenanced by usage.
196. This sound appears also in words written $u$ before $\mathbf{r}$, as in lure [lux] or [luas], sure [ [§ux] or [Svea], pure [pjox] or [pjoer], cure [kjux] or [kjvea], endure [ nn 'djox] or [m'djuex], rural ['rural], fury ['fjurr], jury ['dzurr]; written ou in your [jox] or [jvar], when unstressed [jox]; written 00 in poor [pUs] or [puar], moor [mus] or [muax], boor [bua] or [buax].

The glide vowel in these words is always very slight in standard speech, though more apparent before [ $x$ ] final than before [r] followed by a vowel. Pronunciations like ['ruəral], ['fjuəri], ['d3vəri] are general in British pronunciation but rare in America.
197. For your, poor, moor, boor, a pronunciation
 more, bore, with $[x]$ omitted of course in some dialects, is current in localities but not in standard American pronunciation. As a proper name Moore is pronounced [muax], and when pronounced [motax] it is written More. For door, floor, however, the only current pronunciations


## [ $\Delta$

198. This sound is commonly written $\mathbf{u}$ in the conventional spelling, as in but [bst], buzz [baz], cunning ['kınin], cup [k^p], husband ['hızbənd], etc., but frequently also 0 , as in come [ $\mathrm{k} \wedge \mathrm{m}$ ], done [ $\mathrm{d} \wedge \mathrm{n}$ ], money ['m^nI], some [s^m], and ou, as in couple ['k^pl], cousin ['kazm], ['kazn], double ['dabl], enough [I'naf], trouble ['trabl], slough [slıf], tough [tıf], etc.
199. For $\mathbf{u}$ before $\mathbf{r}$ followed by a vowel, the standard pronunciation is [ $\Delta$ ], as in burrow ['baro], hurry ['harr],
turret ['tarrt], scurry ['skarr]; also o with the value of [ $\Lambda$ ], as in borough ['baro], thorough ['0aro]; and ou with the value of [ 1 ], as in courage ['karid3], nourish ['naris], flourish ['flarif], etc. With some speakers there is a tendency to pronounce the vowel [ə] in these combinations, that is, to pronounce burrow, borough, hurry, turret, etc., as ['baro], ['hari], ['tarit], etc., but this pronunciation is not often heard in cultivated speech. To make the difference clear, pronounce first the monosyllable her, then add a second syllable [I] without changing the phonetic form of the first syllable, and finally substitute for [ 0 ] in the stressed syllable the vowel [ $\Lambda$ ] as in cut, etc.
200. The standard pronunciation of bury is ['berr], see § 136. For foreign ['formn], a form ['farm] is sometimes heard in dialect pronunciation.
201. For e [ $\varepsilon$ ], i, y [ I$]$ before $[\mathrm{r}]$ followed by a vowel, standard English has [ $£$ ], [r], see §§ 135, 170, but for these vowels dialect pronunciation often has [ $\Lambda$ ], merry, very, terrible, American, bury being pronounced ['mari], ['vari], ['tıribl], [ə'm^rikən], ['bırı], and miracle, squirrel, stirrup, syrup, Syracuse being pronounced ['marəkl], ['skwarəl], ['stırəp], ['sarəp], ['sarə'kjus]. But usage in this latter group is not altogether uniform, and though perhaps no cultivated speaker ever says ['msrakl], many cultivated speakers do say ['sarəp], ['starəp], ['skwarəl]. In words of this type, [ə] may also be heard in the popular dialects.
202. In constable, conjure, monger, mongrel, and some other words written 0 before $n$, both ['kınstəbl], ['kındzar], ['mıngər], ['mangral] and ['kanstəbl], ['kandzar], ['manger], ['mangrol] are in good use, the latter being the more general.
203. For com- in combat and derivatives, American usage almost universally has [kom-] or [kam-], but occasionally [k^m-], as in British pronunciation. But company, compass are always ['kımpəni], ['kımpəs].
204. For bombard, bombast, ['b $\wedge \mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ 'baid], ['b mm 'bast] are current British pronunciations, but in America the words are commonly ['bom'ba:Id], ['bom'bæst]. The general pronunciation of bomb in America is [bom], see § 111.
205. For just, such, [dzıst], [s $\Delta t 5]$, the popular speech often has [dzist], [dzest], [sitf], [setJ].

## [ $\Delta_{1}$ ]

206. This sound is heard only in the pronunciation of speakers who do not sound [I] in the final position and before consonants. It is heard only in stressed syllables, words like never ['neve], better ['beto], butter ['bıto] ending simply in [ $\partial$ ] when the final consonant is not pronounced. It is a normal vowel, formed with the point of the tongue touching the roots of the lower teeth, and it should be clearly distinguished from [ə]. It occurs finally in words like fur, fir [ $\mathrm{f}_{1}$ ], infer [ $\mathrm{In}^{\prime} \mathrm{f}_{\Lambda_{1}}$ ], cur [ $\mathrm{k}_{1}$ ], spur [spat], purr [pai], myrrh [mat], and medially in turn [t^in], fern [fıin], furl [fAil], whirl [m^il], dirt [dAit], shirt [ $\int_{\Lambda}: t$ ], worth [w $A: \theta$ ], certain ['s $\left.\Delta: t n\right]$, and similar words. When $\mathbf{r}$ final is not pronounced, it sometimes leaves a trace of its existence as a weak [ə], as in [f $\wedge$ : $]$ ], [kııə], etc. This weak [ə] may be regarded as the survival of a glide vowel before [x], therefore similar in character to the unstressed end vowel of never ['neva], etc.

Since the vowel [4:] occurs only in the speech of persons who do not sound $r$ in the final position and before consonants, it does not appear generally in American speech,
but only in certain forms of what is called loosely "Eastern pronunciation." To most other speakers, pronunciations like fur, fir [f $\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{i}}$ ], cur [kı], etc., seem either local or affected.

## [er]

207. The vowel [e] when prolonged tends to diphthongize into [eI], especially when the vowel is final, as in hay [her], grey, gray [grei], weigh [wer], etc. In standard American speech the first element of this diphthong is a clear [e]-vowel, but some speakers tend to lower the first element to [ $\varepsilon$ ], and this latter seems to be the accepted standard pronunciation in England (see Jones, Pronunciation of English, § 117). It follows that the diphthongal quality of the sound is more marked in British than in American pronunciation, since the glide from [ $\varepsilon$ ] to [ I ] is greater than from [e] to [I]. In fact, with many American speakers the sound is not diphthongal at all, being merely [e.] or [et], except when it is unusually emphatic and long at the end of a word, in which case it becomes [er] with practically all speakers.
[i]
208. This diphthong is not general in American speech, but it occurs occasionally in full stressed monosyllables which end with the vowel or in monosyllables in which the vowel stands before a voiced consonant. Thus for sea, see [sii] one sometimes hears a diphthongal pronunciation [sri], especially when the word is emphatic. Compare also seat [sitt] with seed [sidd] or [sid], freak [frisk] with league [lig] or [lig], fleece [fliss] with freeze [friz] or [friz]. But the diphthongal quality of this sound is always so slight that it is scarcely worth while to record it.
[ax]
209. This sound is represented in the conventional spelling in a variety of ways, as in rite, right, write [rart], lie, lye [lar], sky [skar], deny [di'nar], guy [gar]. When exceptionally emphatic it may become [ai].
210. The pronunciation of lichen is ['larkən] or ['11tfon], most commonly the former. For sacrifice the usual pronunciation is ['sækri'fars], sometimes ['sækri'farz], but only very rarely ['sækri'fis]. For bison the common pronunciation is ['baizn], though ['bisn], ['baisn] are current forms in England. For dynasty both ['darnesti] and ['dmesti] occur, the former being the more general. The pronunciation [fa'rame] for farina [fo'rime] is British but not American usage.
211. The word roil, 'to make turbid,' is obsolete in England, but generally current in America. It has two pronunciations, the more familiar being [rail], especially in the metaphorical sense of the word, 'to vex,' 'to anger.' In this sense the word may also be spelled rile. Popularly roil is always pronounced [rarl], as the diphthong oi regularly was in the eighteenth century, and still is by some old-fashioned folk, as in spoil [sparl], boil [bail], join [dzain], etc. In conventional cultivated use, however, a spelling pronunciation, [rorl], has largely supplanted the older [rail].
212. In words ending in -ile, as in servile, febrile, tactile, reptile, hostile, the general tendency in America is to pronounce the last syllable as [-Il], and so always in agile, fragile. In England the reverse is true, a pronunciation like ['ædzll] being characterized by Michaelis-

Jones, Phonetic Dictionary, p. 11, as dialectal. Usage is not uniform, however, in America, and some speakers say ['sor'vail], ['has'tarl], ['hos'tarl], ['rep'tail], etc. The pronunciation of gentile is always ['dzen'tarl], to keep the word etymologically distinct from gentle.
213. For quinine several pronunciations are current, perhaps the most common being ['kwar'name], but also [kwi'nam], [kwi'ni:n], [kı'ni:n].
214. For cowardice, favorite, genuine the standard pronunciation is ['kaverdis], ['ferverit], ['djenjuin], popularly often ['kauəa'dars], ['fervo'rart], ['dzenju'ain]; but ['kauan'dars] the writer has observed occasionally also in cultivated speech.
215. Some speakers, especially family groups, have [a] for the first element of this diphthong, giving [ar], as in pile [parl], mine [main], kind [kaind], and producing what most persons regard as a rather 'mushy' pronunciation. The second element of the diphthong is likely to become [ə], also, in this pronunciation.
216. For [ar] sometimes [ər] is heard, as in fine [fərn], time [torm], but only in dialect and provincial speech. It is probably this sound which writers of dialect stories have in mind when they spell fine, time as foin, toim, etc.
217. Occasionally one hears from the older generation, pronunciation like kind [kı'amd], sky [ski'ar], with a slight [I] glide vowel between the consonant and the diphthong. This was formerly a fashionable pronunciation (see Webster, Dissertations, p. 109), but has now almost completely disappeared. See § 123.

## [ou]

218. F'or this diphthong, see §§ 74, 177.

Normally in American speech the first element of this diphthong when it occurs is a clear [o]-vowel, but some speakers pronounce a sound very similar to [ $\Lambda$ ], as in know [ $\mathrm{n} \wedge \mathrm{J}$ ], go [ $\mathrm{g} \wedge \mathrm{O}$ ], and also prolong the second element of the diphthong. In American speech the diphthongal quality of the sound is likely to be less marked than in British speech. The diphthong also assumes a greater variety of forms in British than in American speech, and Jones records all of the following variants as
 nunciation of English, § 152). He remarks that "In the best speaking care should be taken to round the lips properly in pronouncing [ou], and not to exaggerate the diphthongization," § 154. Neither caution is urgently applicable to American speech.
219. Both [ 0 ] and [ U$]$ are rounded vowels, the former a mid back tense vowel, the latter a high back slack vowel, and the change in organic position in the glide from [ 0 ] to [ J$]$ is not very great. Examples of words which are likely to be pronounced as diphthongs are so, sow, sew [sou], though [ $\delta$ oud, know [nou], roll [roul], oath [ove], rose [rouz], etc. But all such words are often pronounced simply with [0:].
220. In unstressed or secondarily stressed syllables, as in thorough [' ${ }^{\prime}$ aro], borough, burrow ['baro], fellow ['felo], window ['wmdo], sorrow ['saro], piano [pi'æno], etc., the vowel is scarcely ever diphthongal, and in popular speech often weakens to [ə]. The pronunciation ['baro] or ['barou] for borough is marked as dialectal by

Michaelis-Jones, Phonetic Dictionary, p. 47, for the British standard form ['barə]; so also with thorough, see p. 423. But ['baro], ['0лro] are current cultivsted pronunciations in America, as well as ['burə], ['bsrə], the former perhaps even to be preferred.

## [vu]

221. For this diphthong, see § 76.

## [av]

222. This is the common diphthong ou, ow of house [haus], cow [kau]; ough of slough [slau], 'a swamp' (slough, 'to cast off,' 'the cast skin of a snake,' is pronounced [shff]), bough [bau]; au in some words of foreign origin, as in aurochs ['auər'əks], Augean [au'djiən], Faust [faust]. For slough a spelling slew, slue, sloo, and a corresponding pronunciation [slu:], are current in the Western States.
223. In several regions of the Atlantic seaboard, a triphthong appears in this sound when preceded by $[\mathrm{k}]$, [g], as in cow [ki'au], count [ki'aunt], gout [gi'aut], but this pronunciation is distinctly local and dialectal.
224. The recognized pronunciation of jowl is [dzaul], but [dzo:l] is sometimes heard, perhaps on the analogy of the more familiar word bowl, though the analogy of howl would seem to be just as strong in the other direction." The word jowl, however, is not in general popular use, and for that reason has not acquired an established pronunciation.
225. The same is true of archaic forms like enow, a variant of enough, and trow, for which both [I'naU],
[trau] and [r'nou], [trou] are found as rimes in verse, where the words chiefly occur. When enow appears in the proper name, spelled Goodnow, Goodenow, Goodenough, it is pronounced ['gud'nov], ['gudə'nou].
226. For blouse the usual pronunciation is [blauz], but a more or less fashionable pronunciation (milliner's French), [blu:z], is sometimes affected. The final consonant may also be voiceless, as in [blaus].
227. In British pronunciation the first element of this diphthong is very commonly [a], as in round [raund], gown [gaun], renown [ri'naun], etc., and this pronunciation is sometimes heard in America, though far less frequently than [au]. In New England and in the Southern States the first element of the diphthong is often pronounced [æ], as in hound [hæund], out [æut], but this pronunciation is heard in cultivated speech only as a Southernism.

## [э]

228. This diphthong is conventionally written oi, oy, as in boil [boll], toy [tor], also uoy in buoy [bor], buoyant ['borjont]. A spelling-pronunciation [bur], ['burjont] is sometimes heard for buoy, buoyant, but is not general. The eighteenth century pronunciation of this diphthong was [ar], and this pronunciation still lingers among some old-fashioned and rustic speakers in words like boil [barl], join [dzam], and persists generally in the somewhat colloquial word roil, rile [rail], see § 211.
[ju], [juı]
229. This is a rising diphthong, the first element being slightly stressed, the second element stressed and usually
prolonged. On the consonantal quality of the first element, see $\S \S 25,78$. The diphthong is the sound commonly known as 'long $\mathbf{u}$,' and is written in the ordinary spelling $\mathbf{u}$, as in music ['mjuzzık], musician [mju'zijən], use [juss], [juız]; ew, as in few [fju], new [njur]; eau, as in beauty ['bjustr]. In the initial position and after lip consonants, usage uniformly has the sound [ju] for orthographic long $u$ and its equivalents, as in use [jus], [juzz], rebuke [rı'bjurk], butte [bju:t], fusion ['fjurzon], mule [mju:l], view [vju:], etc. The combination sp is followed by [ju] the same as $\mathbf{p}$, as in spurious ['spjurries], spume ['spjuim].
230. Before $\mathbf{r}$, the second element of the diphthong is likely to be lowered to [ U ], e.g., pure, pronounced [pjux] or [pjox], cure [kjux] or [kjox], etc. When the $r$ is not pronounced, a slight [ə]-vowel may take its place; when it is pronounced, a glide vowel []] may be heard before the consonant.
231. After [1] and [r] the diphthong is rarely heard except in precise speech, the current pronunciation being [ui], as in lute [lurt], Lucy ['lussi], Luke [luik], rule [ruil], rude [ru:d], rune [ruin], ruse [ru:z].

After [d], [t], [ $\theta$ ], [n], [s], usage varies widely, some speakers pronouncing duty ['djuiti], tube [tjuib], enthusiasm [हn'0ju:zræzm], nude [njuid], new [nju!], suit [sju:t], and others [durti], [tu:b], etc. The dictionaries generally authorize only the first of these pronunciations after $[d],[t],[\theta],[\mathrm{n}],[\mathrm{s}]$, and academic authority is very likely to condemn the pronunciation [u:] as uncultivated, in spite of the fact that it occurs widely in the speech of educated and informed people. It has long been current
in America, as is evident from Noah Webster's defense of [ut] in duty, etc., as the best pronunciation. ${ }^{1}$
232. After [ k ], orthographic u , representing the long vowel, is regularly [ju:], as in cube [kjuib], cucumber ['kjur'kımber], cuneiform ['kjumı'form], acute [ $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$ 'kjuit], culinary ['kju:lə'neri], also pronounced ['kalə'neri]. The analogy of these words has affected coupon ['ku''pon], which in popular speech is often pronounced ['kjui'pon].
233. After [g], the spelling $u$ usually indicates merely the quality of the consonant, as in guard [gaind], guess [ges], and has no phonetic value, or it stands for a short vowel, as in gun [gan], gush [g $\left.\Lambda \int\right]$, etc. In legume, leguminous, lugubrious, gubernatorial, the vowel after $\mathbf{g}$ is usually [ u ], rarely [jut].
234. In unstressed syllables, [ju] of standard pronunciation is sometimes weakened in popular pronunciation, as in accurate ['ækjurit], pronounced ['ækərit], sinew ['smju], pronounced ['sinu], argue ['a:agju], pronounced ['augr], ague ['ergju], written in dialect stories as ager, value ['vælju], written in dialect as vally, etc. The pronunciation ['figex] for figure is occasionally heard on the lips of cultivated speakers in America for standard ['figjux], but much less commonly than in England. Michaelis-Jones, Phonetic Dictionary, s. v., describes ['figjux] as dialectal in England. In rapid speech ['figjux] may become ['figjor].

[^5]
## CONSONANTS

[b]
235. This consonant is pronounced in essentially the same way in all positions. A b appears, however, in the conventional spelling of some words which has no phonetic value, (1) before $t$, as in debt [det], doubt [daut], subtle ['satl], subtly ['satly]; (2) after m, as in bomb [bom] or [bım], dumb [d^m], climb [klaim], comb [korm], crumb [krım], jamb [dЗæm], lamb [læm], lambkin ['læmkin], numb [ $\mathrm{n} \wedge \mathrm{m}$ ], comparative degree number ['n^mər], superlative numbest ['n^məst], aplomb [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'plom], plumb [plım], plumber ['plımex], tomb [tu:m].
236. When m is followed by b and a vowel, the b normally goes with the second syllable and is then pronounced, as in limber ['limber], lumber ['1^mber], number ['nımbor], timber ['timbor], etc., except when the influence of a main form, in which the m is not pronounced, affects the pronunciation of derivatives, as in climb [klaim], climbing ['klaimin], climber ['klarmər], plumb [plım], plumbing ['plımin], plumber ['plımer], etc.
237. In the combination mbl, [b] s always pronounced, as in crumble ['krımbl], humble ['hımbl], nimble ['nimbl], thimble [' Imbl], tremble ['trembl], ete.
238. In rhomb [romb] a learned pronunciation with [b] is sometimes heard, due to the influence of spelling, and in iamb ['ar'æmb], also a learned word, the pronunciation with [b] is general. In cupboard, $\mathbf{p}$ has been assimilated to $\mathbf{b}$ which remains as a short consonant, ['kıbard]. In the proper name Jacob, the final consonant
very generally becomes voiceless, the word being pronounced ['dze:kəp]; so also in Jacobs, Jacobson.

## [d]

239. The pronunciation of $d$ of the conventional spelling remains uniform, except as the sound is affected by assimilation to neighboring sounds. Immediately after a voiceless consonant, [d] is regularly assimilated, becoming also voiceless, as in backed [bækt], baked [betkt], sniffed [snift], hissed [hist], flapped [flæpt], wished [wift], frothed [fröt], etc.
240. The reverse process may sometimes be observed in relaxed and slovenly speech, that is, a voiceless $[t]$ in voiced surrounding becomes voiced, as in belated [bi'leitəd], pronounced [br'lesdəd]; rated ['reitəd], scarcely distinguished in pronunciation from raided ['rerdəd]; fitted ['fitəd], pronounced ['fidəd]. In popular speech putty is frequently pronounced ['padr], and in some dialects water becomes ['wodə], letter becomes ['ledə], bitter becomes ['bidə], etc., see § 14.
241. After [ 1$]$ and [ n ], where according to rule one expects to find a voiced [d], in some words forms with both [d] and [ t$]$ exist, and the latter pronunciation is sometimes represented by $\mathbf{t}$ in the conventional spelling, as in learned, learnt, [lomnd], [lomt], as participial adjective ['laməd]; burned, burnt, [bərnd], [bəint]; spoiled, spoilt, [sporld], [spoilt]; spelled, spelt, [speld], [spelt]; spilled, spilt, [sprld], [spilt]. Usage is arbitrary in pronunciations of this type. One may say [spilt] for spilled, but not [kilt] for killed, except in dialect Irish-English, where pronunciations with [t] are found in many preterites and past participles which have only [d] in standard English.
242. For used, in the sense of 'employ,' 'make use of,' the common pronunciation is [ju:zd], but for used, 'to be accustomed to,' a widely current pronunciation is [justt], when the final consonant [d] is assimilated to the [t] of the sign of the infinitive which in most instances follows the word. In a phrase like I used to go [ar 'justo 'gou], there is of course only one [ $t$ ], to which the preceding consonant has also been assimilated, [z] becoming [s]. A like assimilation is common in I had to go [ar 'hæto 'gou] or [ar 'hætıə 'gou].
243. After [n], in standard familiar speech [d] before a consonant is frequently omitted, as in grandmother ['gren'mıбəə]; handkerchief ['hænkər't5ff], or following the general tendency in the pronunciation of $[\mathrm{n}]$ before [k], see § 289, ['hænkəม'tfff]; handsome ['hænsəm]; Windsor ['winzex]; brand-new, also spelled bran-new ['bræn!'jut]. Unemphatic and frequently becomes merely [ n ], as in time and tide [tarm n taid], good and hot [gud $n$ hat], etc. These pronunciations may be heard from cultivated speakers, but usage does not countenance this omission in all instances, pronunciations like band-box ['bæn'baks], landlady ['læn'le:dr], landlord ['læn'load], being heard only in careless or very rapid speech.
244. A similar omission of [d] takes place before [ $n$ ] in Wednesday ['wenz'deI], ['wenzdr].
245. After [ n ] in stressed syllables, [d] is sometimes added in popular speech, as in [draund] for drown, [gaund] for gown.
246. In the combination nge, a [d] is commonly pronounced after [ n ], as in angel ['eindzal], danger ['demdzea],
hinge［hindz］，impinge［m＇pind3］，strange［stre：nd3］，etc．， though some speakers pronounce such words without a ［d］，i．e．，［＇emzol］，［＇demzər］，etc．The pronunciation with ［d］is to be preferred．The same is true of the combina－ tion rge，as in barge［baisd3］，large［land3］，forge［foad3］， urge［＇ə⿰丬士3］；and lge，as in bilge［bild3］，bulge［bald3］， indulge［ $\mathrm{m}^{\prime} \mathrm{d} \Lambda l d 3$ ］，and other words．See § 341 ．

## ［g］

247．This sound varies considerably according to its vocalic surrounding，as may be observed by comparing gig［gig］with gone［gon］，see § 21．No questions of pro－ priety are raised by this variation，however，because all speakers instinctively make the adaptation necessary to fit the consonant to its surroundings．

248．A g of the conventional spelling is silent in a number of words before［ m ］and［ n ］，as in paradigm ［＇pærədim］，sometimes［＇pærə＇darm］；phlegm［flem］，but phlegmatic always［fleg＇mætık］；condign［kən＇dann］；for－ eign［＇forin］；impugn［ $\mathrm{mm}^{\prime}$＇pjum］；reign［re：n］；sovereign ［＇savren］．For poignant，poignancy the usual pronuncia－ tions are［＇pomənt］，［＇poinənsi］，but through the influence of spelling，［＇poignont］，［＇porgnonsi］are also sometimes heard．An initial $\mathbf{g}$ is silent in gnarled［＇notald］，gnash ［næ］，gnat［næt］，gnaw［not］，gnome［nom］，gnu［nu：］， gnostic［＇nostik］．For physiognomy the usual pronuncia－ tion is［fizi＇ $\mathrm{g}^{2}$ nəmı］，but also sometimes［fizi＇ənəmi］．

249．The combination ng of the conventional spelling represents simply［ n ］in pronunciation when final，as in sing［sin］，singing［sinm］，wrong［ron］，tongue［t＾n］，young ［ $j \wedge n]$ ］，etc．But in the combination ngl［ngl］，ngr［ngr］be－ fore vowels or when $[1]$ ，$[\mathrm{r}]$ are syllabic，a $[\mathrm{g}]$ is retained，
as in angle ['æŋgol]; England ['rnglənd], English ['ryglrs], though some speakers say ['mplənd], ['miry]; Inglis ['mglis], Ingalls ['rngəlz]; single ['singl]; anger ['æŋger], angry ['ængri]; finger ['frngax]; linger ['lıngex]; longer ['longəx]; stronger ['strongex]; younger ['j^ıggex], etc. In the superlatives longest ['longest], strongest ['strongast], youngest $[$ [ $\mathrm{j} \wedge \mathrm{g} g$ gst], the $[\mathrm{g}]$ is retained through the influence of the comparative with [r]. On the other hand, words like bringer ['briŋəa], hanger ['hæクəa], ringer ['ripax], singer ['singar], stringer ['strinor], etc., in which the same combination of letters occurs as in linger, etc., have no [g] because the derivative forms are influenced by head forms like bring [brin], hang [hæn], etc.
250. The combination ngu, when the $\mathbf{u}$ has phonetic value and is not silent as in tongue, harangue, is pronounced [ ygw ], as in languid ['læygwid]; language ['længwidn]; languish ['længwis]; lingual ['lingwal], linguist ['liggwist], and probably by attraction to lingual, etc., $[\mathrm{ng}]$ in lingo ['lingo]. For languor all three pronunciations occur, ['læŋə]], ['læŋgər] and ['læŋgwər], the first two being more general than the third.
251. For recognizance, 'a bond or pledge to keep the peace,' etc., the usual pronunciation is [ri'kagnizens], less often [ri'kanzzons]. As a military term, meaning a preliminary examination of a region, the spelling is reconnaissance, pronounced [ri'kanisəns]. For recognize the only standard pronunciation is one with [g], as in ['rekəg'naiz], though one not infrequently hears ['rekənazz] in rapid speech and, perhaps even more frequently, recognition pronounced [rekə'nifon].
252. For suffragan the accepted pronunciation is ['safragən], but the pronunciation of suffrage ['ssfrid3] some-
times produces ['ssfridzen] in the speech of persons to whom the word is mainly an eye-word.
253. The combination gh of the conventional spelling is always silent, as in right [rart], freight [frett], sought [sort], etc., except when it stands for [f], see § 357, or in a few words for $[\mathrm{g}]$, as in ghostly, ghost, ghetto.

## [h]

254. The main question that arises in connection with $\mathbf{h}$ is whether it is pronounced or whether it is silent. In America there is no group of speakers who add and omit [h] before vowels in the manner of the Cockney English, but in general whenever $\mathbf{h}$ appears in writing in stressed position, American speakers pronounce it. To this rule there are some exceptions, heir, heiress, honor, honest, hour never having an initial [h]. In herb and the proper names Humphrey, Humphries, the initial $\mathbf{h}$ is sometimes pronounced, sometimes not, the pronunciation without [h] being the more general. In human, humble, humor a pronunciation without [ h ] is almost never heard in America in the speech of cultivated persons, the phonetic forms of these words being ['hju:mən], ['hımbl], ['hju:mə.]. But perhaps ['jurmer] should be recognized as an occasional cultivated pronunciation. In derivatives from herb, such as herbage, herbalist, herbarium, the initial consonant is always pronounced.
255. In unstressed syllables, initial [h] is sometimes lost. For shepherd and forehead the usual pronunciations are ['Separd] and ['fored] or ['forrd], though a spellingpronunciation ['for'hed] is occasionally heard. For vehement, vehicle the standard pronunciations are ['vioment]
and ['virkl], though popular forms with [ h ] are not infrequent. When the [ h ] is pronounced in vehement, the stress is likely to be on the second syllable, [vi'hismont].
256. In weak syllables [h] is sometimes dropped in standard speech in words which retain it when the syllable is stressed, as in history ['histori], an historical novel [æn• is'torikl 'navl]; him [hrm], but I saw him [ar so: mm ]; herald ['herold], but an heraldic device [æn $\varepsilon r^{\prime} æ{ }^{\prime} æ l d r k$ di'vais].
257. In proper names compounded with -ham, [h] is sometimes lost, as in Chatham ['t $£$ ætom], Graham ['greəəm], Pelham ['peləm], Wyndham ['windəm], Fordham ['foudəm], and in a great many other dissyllables like these. But in trisyllables the general tendency of American speech is to put a secondary stress on the third syllable, which thus maintains the full form of -ham in words like Birmingham ['barmin'hæm], Buckingham ['bakm'hæm], Frothingham ['froðm'hæm], Wilbraham ['wilbrə'hæm], locally pronounced ['wilbar'hæm], etc. In Waltham, Wrentham, names of towns in Massachusetts, the $t$ and $h$ combine, giving ['rentom], and for Waltham ['wol' $\theta æ m$ ], with a heavy secondary stress. These are the local pronunciations, but persons to whom the words are merely eye-words would probably pronounce them ['rentom] and ['woltom].
258. After $\times[\mathrm{ks}],[\mathrm{gz}], \mathrm{h}$ is normally not pronounced, as in exhibit [ $\mathrm{Eg}^{\prime}$ zrbrt], exhibition [eksi'brjon]; exhaust [Ig'zost]]; exhort [Ig'zort], etc. Occasionally one hears exhale [हks'hell], exhume [eks'hju:m], where the [h] is pronounced in an effort to make the second elements of the words etymologically prominent.

## [j]

259. This sound is commonly written $y$ in the ordinary alphabet, as in yawl [joil], yes [jes], yearn [jomn], youth [ju: $\theta$ ], etc. Words written with initial $\mathbf{u}$, as in use [ju:s], union ['jumjon], etc., have this sound as the first element of the so-called 'long u.' In internal position [j] appears in companion [kəm'pænjən], onion ['^njən], carrier ['kærijox], collier ['kalrjəx] or ['kaljox], etc. It is also occasionally heard in the speech of precise persons who try to avoid the sound [t5] generally current in words like feature, nature, etc., which are artificially pronounced ['fistjui], ['ne:tjui], etc.
260. The word yeast [jisst] in popular speech often loses the initial consonant, becoming [i:st].
261. In illiterate speech, a pronunciation ['kaljom] for standard column ['kalom] is frequent.
262. For [j] in French and Italian words written gn, see § 285 . The word reveille is commonly pronounced ['revalr], though occasionally [ro'verjə]; surveillance is either [sə.'ve:ləns] or [səa've:ljəns]; cotillon is either [ko'tılən] or [ko'tıljən], but when the latter pronunciation is intended, the spelling is usually cotillion.

## [k]

263. The ordinary spellings for this sound are $\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{c h}$, $\mathbf{c k}$, qu (with the value of $[k]$ or [kw]), and $\mathbf{x}$ (with the value of [ks]), as in king [kin], call [korl], chemist ['kemist], black [blæk], exchequer [ $\mathrm{\varepsilon ks}$ 't $\int$ ekə.], tax [tæks]. In words written cc only one [ $k$ ] is pronounced, as in account [ $\partial^{\prime}$ kaunt], accuse [ $\partial^{\prime} \mathrm{kju} \mathrm{z}$ ], etc. In schism [sizm] and derivatives, ch is silent. For schedule the current pronun-
ciation in America is ['skedjul], but ['Sedjul] is the more general pronunciation in England. The pronunciation of cham is [kæm], the word being an older variant form of khan [ka:n]. In flaccid ['flæksid], the first c represents $[\mathrm{k}]$, the second [s].

The spelling ch is silent in drachm [dræm] and yacht [jat].
264. In the combination $\mathrm{kn}, \mathrm{k}$ is silent, except when preceded by a vowel with which it makes a syllable, as in knowledge ['nalid3], but acknowledge [æk'nalid3]; knee [nit], knight [nart], etc.
265. Before [ t ], $[\mathrm{k}$ ] is lost in victuals ['vitlz], indict [ $m$ 'dart] and derivatives, likewise in arctic ['austik] in popular speech and not infrequently also in cultivated speech. The form ['autrks] is commonly used as the name of a kind of over-shoes. In most words, however, $[\mathrm{k}]$ is regularly pronounced before [ t ], as in convict ['kanvikt], deduct [dr'dлkt], depict [dı'pikt], picked [pıkt]. For Connecticut the standard pronunciation is [ke'netikat].
266. No [k] appears in the combination scl, as in muscle ['mısl], corpuscle ['koد'pasl]. For corpuscle a second spelling and pronunciation occur, corpuscule [kos'paskjul], hence also corpuscular [kox'paskjulor].
267. In the combination [ nk ] followed by another consonant, many somewhat careless speakers tend to omit [ k ], pronouncing anxious ['ænk ${ }^{2}$ วs] as ['æn〕as]; injunction
 In the unstressed position this pronunciation is general, as in anxiety [æŋ'zourti]; punctilious [pın'tilias], but punctual ['panktSual]; sanctimonious [sænti'momias], but sanctify ['sænktr'far], etc.
268. In blackguard ['blæ'gasd], $k$ is silent, being as-. similated to the following g .
269. The combination [ks], in unstressed position when followed by a voiced consonant or a vowel, generally becomes $[\mathrm{gz}]$, as in exact $\left[\mathrm{Eg}^{\prime} \mathrm{z} æ \mathrm{kt}\right.$ ], exhibit [ $\mathrm{Eg}^{\prime}$ zibit], exile (verb) [eg'zarl], auxiliary [ $\mathrm{og}^{\prime}$ zılıerr], luxurious [lıg'zurios].
270. Analogy operates in words of this type, however, a form like axiom ['æksiom], with [ks] under the stress, retaining this pronunciation in axiomatic [æksı' mætık], and vex [veks] preserving a voiceless consonant in vexation [veks'e:Sən]. But [veg'ze:\{ən] is also heard, and under the influence of luxurious, a pronunciation ['lagzorr] for luxury ['1akjori]. In the same way exile (noun and adjective) ['Egzarl] is to be accounted for, by the side of ['eksail], the former being now the more common pronunciation of the word.
271. Under the stress and before voiceless consonants, [ks] generally remains, as in exhibition ['eksi'brjən], exigency ['eksidzensi], exit ['عkstt], excellent ['ekselant], expire [ek'sparəx], extreme [ $\varepsilon \mathrm{k}^{\prime}$ strim], ecstatic [ek'stætik], etc.
272. A [ k ] is often added in popular speech between [ n$]$ and $[\theta]$, length $[l \mathrm{ly} \theta]$ ], strength [stren $\theta$ ], and derivatives, being pronounced [lınk $\theta]$, [strenk $\theta]$, etc.

## [1]

273. An 1 of the ordinary spelling is silent before $[\mathrm{k}]$, as in talk [tork], walk [work], chalk [ţork], caulk [kotk], Falkland ['foklond], folk [fork], yolk [york], when the
vowel preceding $[\mathrm{k}]$ is $[\mathrm{o}]$ or [ 0$]$. After other vowels [l] is retained, as in calculate ['kælkju'le•t], in dialect speech also pronounced ['kæk-]; elk [elk], milk [milk], hulk [halk]. In Balkan ['bollkon] the spelling has probably influenced the pronunciation (cf. balk [boik], balky ['botki], where the [l] is not pronounced), or the syllable division, which carries the [1] with the first syllable, causes it to be pronounced. In falcon, falconry, the 1 is always pronounced in American speech, probably because this is mainly a literary word and the spelling has thus been unusually influential.
274. Before $m$ and after a [at], [æ], o [ot], an 1 of the ordinary spelling is silent, as in balm [ba:m], calm [ka:m], alms [aımz], palm [pa!m], psalm [sa!m], qualm [kwa!m], salmon ['sæmən] or ['sa!mən], almond ['aumənd] or ['æmənd], holm [horm], Holmes [hormz]. But 1 is pronounced after [ $\varepsilon$ ], [ I$]$, [ $\Lambda$ ], as in helm [helm], film [film], culm [knlm], Hulme [halm], and of course in words in which m goes with a succeeding vowel, as in almanac, Palmyra, calmative, a medical term derived from calm, etc. In a word like almond, which might be written ['a:mnd], the second syllable is apparently so slightly syllabic as not to cause a separation between the preceding 1 and m . Yet a pronunciation ['ælmənd] does occur not infrequently in popular speech, and the local pronunciation of Salmon, a frequent proper name in Connecticut, is ['sælmən].
275. In psalter, psaltery, ['solter], ['soltori], 1 is always pronounced. In psalmist it is usually not pronounced, through force of the analogy of psalm. But in psalmody, psalmodic, pronunciations on the analogy of psalm without 1 , and pronunciations with 1 , ['selmədr], [sel'madik]
are both current, in the latter case the two consonants going with separate syllables.
276. After a [at], [a:], [ $\mathfrak{x}]$, o [ $\mathfrak{\circ}$ ], 1 is silent before [ f$]$, [v], in calf, half, salve, golf [goff], but also pronounced [golf], the latter being perhaps the more common pronunciation in America. When the [f] or [v] goes with a succeeding syllable, a preceding [l] is pronounced, as in palfrey ['pælfri], salvage ['sælvid3], salvation [sæl've:5ən], etc. In the proper names Ralph, Rolfe, an [1] is always pronounced, probably through the influence of the spelling, though formerly a pronunciation without [1] was also current. The verb salve, in the special sense of saving a ship or a ship's cargo, is pronounced [sælv].
277. Before [n], [I] is silent in Lincoln ['Ingkən].
278. The spelling colonel for ['kannl], ['kasnl], is due to the French and Italian form of this word, but the pronunciation is due to the Spanish form, in which $\mathbf{r}$ appears instead of 1 in the spelling.
279. In solder ['sadəx], 1 is silent, though otherwise generally pronounced before d. Dialectally this word is sometimes pronounced ['sorder], written sawder in dialect stories. In could, would, should, no [l] is present in pronunciation, and historically no 1 should appear in the spelling of could. The Middle English form of this word is coude, but later the spelling changed to could under the influence of the analogy of would and should, both of which had 1 through etymological origin. But could seems to have retained its pronunciation without [1], and even to have attracted would and should to it. As auxiliaries, these words were all slightly stressed in the
word group, and this fact may have contributed to the loss of the []] in them.
280. Words written 11 , normally have only a single [1]-sound, as in holly ['halr], fully ['fuli], etc., except when for the sake of unusual clearness a word like wholly is pronounced ['ho:lly] to distinguish it from holy ['ho:ll], or solely is pronounced ['so:lll] to keep it etymologically distinct from the word soul, or foully is pronounced ['faulli] to keep it etymologically distinct from fowl. Ordinarily, however, wholly and holy are pronounced exactly alike, ['ho:li].

## [m]

281. The pronunciation of [ m ] in standard English causes no difficulty. When $m$ is written, it is always pronounced, except in mnemonic [ $n r^{\prime}$ manik] and derivative forms of this word, where it is silent, and in comptroller [kən'tro:lor], where it is pronounced [n].
282. In popular English [ m ] is sometimes made syllabic after [1], elm [عlm], helm [helm], film [film], etc., being pronounced ['घləm], ['heləm], ['filəm], etc.
283. For pumpkin standard pronunciation has ['pampkrn ], ['pımkin], but dialect speech commonly has ['pı刀kin], ['pıŋkn].

## [n]

284. The usual orthographic spelling for $[\mathrm{n}]$ is $\mathbf{n}$, but also $\mathrm{gn}, \mathrm{kn}$, with g and k silent, as in no [nov], ant [ænt], penny ['peni], ton [tın]; condign [kən'dam], gnaw [not], feign [fe:n], foreign ['form], poignant ['pomənt]; knee [nit], knell [nel], knock [nak], knoll [noil], know [nou].
285. In words of French and Italian origin written gn, as in cognac, mignonette, vignette, Bologna, Campagna, and in Spanish words written $\tilde{\mathbf{n}}$, as in cañon, señor, piñon, the sound is [ nj ], as in ['kom'jæk], ['mmjo'net], [vm'jet], [bə'lomjə], popularly often pronounced [[bə'lomi], [kæm'pænjə], ['kænjən], ['simn'jox], ['pin'jon]. For cañon a spelling canyon is now commonly used. Exceptions to this rule are poignant, noted above, and champagne ['Sæm'pern]. The place name Boulogne is commonly pronounced [bu'lom], and for Bourgogne only the Anglicized forms Burgoyne, Burgundy are in general use. In the customary pronunciation ['sim' ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ ] for señor the accented vowel has lost its Spanish value.
286. After 1, [n] is silent in kiln [kil], though a pronunciation with [ $n$ ], due to the influence of the spelling, is also heard.
287. For chimney ['t5imni], popular English often has ['tSimli], ['tsimbli].
288. After [ m ], an orthographic n is regularly silent, except when it belongs to a succeeding syllable, as in solemn ['saləm], but solemnize ['saləm'naiz]; autumn ['ottom], but autumnal ['tımmnal]; hymn [hrm], but hymnal ['hrmnal]. The influence of a head form without [ n ] often preserves this pronunciation even when mn is followed by a vowel, as in condemn [kən'dem], condemning [kən'demin]; damn [dæm], damning ['dæmin]; in joy and hymning (Milton) [m djor ænd 'himin].
In popular pronunciation [ n ] is often omitted in government ['gavarn'ment], pronounced ['gavar'ment].

For n [ n ] before [ k ], see § 289.
289. This sound is commonly represented in spelling by ng , or by n in the combination [ gg ], [ gk ], as in sing, singing, [sin], [sipm], long [lon], lung [lın], rang [ræn]; think [ $\theta \mathrm{m} \mathrm{jk}$ ], minx [minks], Bronx [bronks], bank [bænk], sunk [ $\mathrm{s} \wedge \mathrm{yk}$ ], monk [ $\mathrm{m} \wedge \eta \mathrm{k}$ ], monkey ['m^ŋkr], distinct
 $t 5 ə n]$, conch [kənk], etc. On the omission of $[\mathrm{k}]$ or $[\mathrm{t}]$ in the combination [ ykt ], see $\$ 8267,339$.
290. The prefix in- when stressed and followed by [k] is pronounced [ $\mathrm{mn}-$ ] or [ $\mathrm{m}-\mathrm{l}$ ], as in income ['m'knm] or ['ın'kım], incubus ['mnkjubas] or ['ınkjubas], incubate ['mkju'be•t] or ['mkju'be•t]; so also with in- followed by qu, as in inquest ['mkwest] or ['mkwest]. The pronunciation of inquiry [ $\mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ kwarrr] with stress on the first syllable, giving ['mkwirr] or ['ınkwirr], is not current in standard English.
291. The prefix con- followed by [gr] is pronounced [kan-] when it bears a stress, as in congress ['kangres], congregate ['kangri'ge•t], congruous ['kangrves]; but when not stressed it usually becomes [kən-], as in congressional [kən'grefənal], congruity [kən'gruiti]. In congregational a pronunciation [kay-] may persist because in polysyllables of this type the first syllable bears a secondary stress.

For Congreve, Conger, Congo, the usual pronunciations are ['kaj'griv], ['kangex], ['kaŋ'gou].
292. Followed by [ k ], the pronunciation of con- varies indifferently between [kan-] and [kan-], as in concave ['kan'ke•v] or ['kaj'ke•v], concubine ['kankjubam] or ['kankjubain], conclave ['kan'kle•v] or ['kan'kle•v], con-

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cord ['kan'kord] or ['kan'kord], concourse ['kan'kous] or ['kan'koss], concrete ['kan'krit] or ['kan'krit].
293. Before qu [kw], gu [gw], $\mathbf{n}$ is pronounced [ n ] by some speakers, [ n ] by others, as in banquet ['bæn'kwet] or ['bæn 'kwet], Banquo ['bæn'kwo] or ['bæn'kwo], lingual ['lingwal] or ['lingwal], linguistic [lnn'gwistik] or [ling'gwistik], etc., with the preference perhaps in favor of the pronunciations with [n]. In conquer ['kankər], conqueror ['kankərex], where qu is [ k , the value of n is always [ n ], but in conquest forms with [ n ] and [ n ] both appear.
294. Before [ $\theta$ ], $[\mathrm{n}]$ often becomes $[\mathrm{n}]$ in popular speech in length [len $\theta$ ], lengthen ['len $\theta \not \partial n$ ], strength [stren $\theta$ ], strengthen ['stren $\theta$ ən], which are pronounced [len $\theta$ ], ['Ien $\theta ə n]$, [stren $\theta$ ], ['stren $\theta ə n]$.
295. A final unstressed [ n ] is sometimes pronounced [ n ] in dialect speech, as in kitchen [ ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{krt} \mathrm{fIn}$ ], chicken ['tSikmy], garden ['gardm], etc., so also facetiously in heavens ['hevinz].
296. In dialect speech and sometimes also in colloquial cultivated speech, final unstressed [ $n$ ] becomes [ n ], especially in present participles, as in singing ['simin], doing ['dum], saying ['serm], etc. This pronunciation is more generally heard in cultivated speech in England than in America. In both countries, however, the authority of academic opinion is strongly against it.
297. A final [ n ] sometimes becomes $[\mathrm{nk}]$ in dialect speech, as nothing ['n $\wedge \theta \ldots \mathrm{m} \mathrm{k}$ ], singing ['smimk], anything ['eni'日rink]. This pronunciation appears in America chiefly in the larger cities and in speakers of foreign birth
or tradition. It is more common in unstressed than in stressed syllables, but pronunciations like [kup] for king may even be heard.

## [p]

298. An orthographic pis silent in comptroller [kən'troilor], psalm [samm], pseudo- ['suido-], psychology [sai'kalad3I], pneumatic [nju'mætik], pterodactyl [tero'dæktil], ptomaine ['tor'me•n], ptarmigan ['taumigən], raspberry', ['ræz'beri], ['ra:z'berr]. The pronunciation of corp is [kor], plural corps [korz], but in corpse [korps] the $\mathbf{p}$ is sounded. In cupboard ['kıbord] the $\mathbf{p}$ is not sounded and may be said to have been assimilated to the following b. The word clapboard shows the same change.
299. On the other hand, some speakers insert a [p] between $m$ and a continuant consonant where no [p] is present in orthography or in standard speech, as in warmth [woxmpe], lymph [limpf], camphor ['kæmpfor], symphony ['simpfani], samphire ['sæmp'faiər], Humphrey, Humphries, ['hımpfri], ['hımpfriz]. The spelling ph in these words may partly account for the pronunciation of a $[\mathrm{p}]$ in them, though this spelling is of course only one of the English ways of recording [f]. A more probable explanation, however, is that a $[\mathrm{p}$ ] is necessarily produced when the breath is allowed to issue after the formation of [ m ] and the tongue and lip formation for a different consonant are not immediately assumed. In the same way a [p] is sometimes present in dreamt [dremt], giving [drempt]. See § 359 for ph pronounced [p] in the combination phth.
300. In the orthographic combination mp followed by a consonant, a [ p$]$ is generally pronounced, as in unkempt ['ın'kempt], limped [limpt], stamped [stæmpt], glimpse
[glmps], lamps [læmps], assumption [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'sampfon], etc., but some speakers tend to omit the $[\mathrm{p}]$ in these combinations, pronouncing [' $\wedge$ n'kemt], [limt], [stæmt], [glmms], [ $\rho^{\prime}$ sımjan], etc. To most persons these seem rather careless pronunciations.
In the place names Hampshire, Hampden, Hampton, the $\mathbf{p}$ is usually silent.

$$
[\mathrm{r}],[\mathrm{I}]
$$

301. On the different varieties of r , see §§ 39-44.

Especially in the East and South, $[x]$ is regularly omitted by many speakers before other consonants and finally, as in party ['parti], large [laid3], far [for], cur [kıt], war [wor]. But when stressed $[x]$ is omitted finally it often leaves a trace of its existence in a weak [ə], as in for, four ['fore], there [' $\delta \varepsilon!ə$ ], fear ['fir], fire ['faəə], fur ['f $\wedge: ə$ ], war ['woəə], cur ['kata], far ['fa:b].
302. When $[x]$ is omitted before a consonant, the preceding vowel, if not already long, is lengthened, and the difference in length may then be the only distinguishing feature between two such words as cart [kart] and cot [kat], hard [haid] and hod [had], part [pait] and pot [pat]. But between father and farther no phonetic distinction would exist, both being ['fardo]; so also fought and fort might both be [fort], caught and court might be [kort], sought and sort might be [sott], laud and lord might be [lo:d], etc. In Southern speech the sound of o before $\mathbf{r}$ and a consonant frequently becomes a vowel between [0:] and [or], which may be described as a front [0!]. In this pronunciation lord lies between laud and load and distinct from both. So also in words with $\mathbf{r}$ final, as in tore, the pronunciation of which suggests taw or toe, but is appreciably different to the ear.
303. For burst a popular form without $[x]$ is generally current, but is pronounced [bıst], whereas the cultivated pronunciation is either [boist] or [bsist]. Similar pronunciations like nurse [nıs], first [f $\wedge$ st], curse [k^s], pursy ['pasi], purslane ['pasli], are to be heard only in dialect and popular speech.
304. For iron and derivatives the only current pronunciations are ['aram], ['aəə]. A parallel pronunciation for apron ['e!pə.m], however, is dialectal, the standard form being ['erpron]. For irony the pronunciation is ['airanr]. For tired the standard pronunciation is ['taradd] or ['tarad], and so with similar words, such as fired, hired, wired, etc.
305. At the end of words after vowels, in unstressed and after [ 0 ?] in stressed syllables, an [ $x$ ] is often added which is not present in spelling or in standard use, as in idea [ar'dror], window ['windex], Hannah ['hænər], Noah ['no:ar], etc. This is most likely to take place when the word is followed by another word beginning with a vowel, but the pronunciation is not limited to such combinations. Pronunciations like [droti], [sori] for draw [drot], saw [so:], occur only in illiterate or dialect speech, but one often hears [ai'drex], ['windar], ['hænər], etc., especially in New England, in the speech of cultivated persons. They are localisms, however, not to be recommended for imitation. In dialect speech an $\mathbf{r}$ is often inserted before a consonant after [o:], as in chalk, pronounced [tऽo: xk ], dog, pronounced [dotig], soft, pronounced [souft], etc. For standard wash [woj], Washington ['wosinton], popular speech often has [wo:is], ['wousimton]. In such words [ x ] probably arises from the diphthongal pronunciation of [0:], see § 70.
306. Between vowels, [ r ] is omitted dialectally and also by some educated speakers in a kind of feeble refined pronunciation which is not general in any locality, but is characteristic rather of individuals or small family groups, as in ['veri] for very, ['keri] for carry, ['oral] for oral, ['f $\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{A}: \mathrm{I}}$ ] for furry, etc. This pronunciation is caused by failure to bring the tongue after the pronunciation of the preceding vowel to the position required by [r], and in most instances is probably a survival of infantile pronunciations in which the movements of the organs of speech were under imperfect command. Somewhat similar is the omission of $[r]$ in hundred, pronounced ['handəd], and the first [r] in February, pronounced ['febə'weri], for standard ['handrəd], ['febru'erı]. For February there is also a pronunciation ['febju'erı] which is probably in part due to the analogy of January ['dzænju'عrı], and is not infrequently heard in cultivated speech. The pronunciation of library ['laibreri] as ['laiberr] is juvenile and dialectal.
307. In popular speech, [ I ] is also omitted before consonants, especially in unstressed syllables, as in comfortable, surprised, particular, pronounced ['k^mfətəbl], [so'praizd], [pə'tikjulex], Saturday, pronounced ['sætodr]. Also in some stressed syllables, as in cartridge, pronounced ['kætrid3], partridge, pronounced ['pætrid3].

## [s]

308. The sound of [ s ] is represented in the ordinary spelling by s, ss, c, sc, $\mathbf{x}[\mathrm{ks}]$, as in yes [jes], best [best], miss [mis], mistress ['mistris], wasp [wosp], rice [rais], except [ $\varepsilon k^{\prime}$ sept], accept [æk'sept], ceiling ['siılin], cincture ['sigktSor], cinch [sintS], circle ['so.ıkl], service ['sorvis],
tax［tæks］，buxom［＇baksom］，scythe［sarð］，scene［sim］， scissors［＇sizeaz］．The spelling of scissors is exceptional in two respects，in the spelling sc in a native English word for［s］，and ss for［z］．In schism and derivatives， sch is pronounced［s］，［sizm］．

For si，ssi，su，ssu，pronounced［［J］，see § 327.
309．The value of $\mathbf{c}$ is［s］regularly before $e, i, y$ ，as in cell［sel］，conceit［kən＇sitt］，citron［＇sitrən］，decide［dr－ ＇sard］，cinch［sint5］，cycle［＇sarkl］，but［k］before a，o，u，as in can［kæn］，call［koll］，coke［ko：k］，cook［kuk］，cup［kıp］． For sacerdotal the standard pronunciation is［＇sæsor＇dot－ tal］，but sometimes a Latinized pronunciation［sæko．－］ is heard．The Old English proper names Cædmon， Cynewulf are pronounced［＇kædmən］，［＇kini＇wulf］．For Celt，Celtic，Cymric both［kelt］，［＇keltik］，［＇kımrik］and ［selt］，［＇seltık］，［＇simrik］occur．

310．In the combination stl，the $s$ is usually voiceless， as in gristle［＇grisl］，thistle［＇⿴囗十Isl］，whistle［＇misll］，etc．，but some speakers say［＇mizl＇tou］for mistletoe［＇misl＇tou］． For grisly the standard pronunciation is［＇grislr］．

311．For greasy the common pronunciation is［＇grizz］， but some speakers carry over the consonant of the noun grease［griss］to the adjective，pronouncing the adjective ［＇grisis］．A distinction is sometimes made in the meaning of［＇grisi］and［＇grizzi］，the latter being regarded as a word of unpleasant connotation．Popular usage and，in general，standard speech have only the form with［z］．

312．For rise（noun）a pronunciation［rass］is some－ times heard to distinguish the noun from the verb［ravz］， but the common pronunciation is［raz］for both noun and verb．In some words，however，$[\mathrm{s}]$ is distinctive for
noun, [z] for verb function, as in advice [æd'vars], advise
 abuse (verb) [a'bju:z]; use [juss], use (verb) [ju:z]; grease [griss], grease (verb) [grizz]. For sacrifice the common pronunciation is ['sækrr'fars] for both noun and verb, but ['sækri'fazz] is occasionally heard for the verb. For close as verb the pronunciation is [klo:z], as adjective, adverb and noun (as in 'cathedral close') the pronunciation is [klors]. In recluse [ri'kluss] the $\boldsymbol{s}$ is voiceless.
313. The pronunciation of Missouri is commonly [miz'uiri], though [mi'suiri] is sometimes heard. The accented vowel may be [0].
314. In Louisville, St. Louis, Illinois and other proper names in which a French tradition survives, pronunciations both with and without $s$ are generally current. In New Orleans the final $\mathbf{s}$ is always pronounced, the stress being on the first syllable, as in ['nju 'oalonz]. The pronunciation ['nju os'limz] is dialectal. In Des Moines [dr'mom] neither $s$ is sounded. In Illinois when the final consonant is pronounced it is voiced. In New Orleans the two vowel letters of the final syllable may be given separate quality, as in ['nju 'oxlionz].
315. In ambergris, though the word is of French origin, the final $\mathbf{s}$ is always sounded, and the word is treated as though it were a compound of amber and grease, being pronounced accordingly, ['æmbar'gris]. So also with verdigris ['vəadr'griss], avoirdupois ['ævaュdu'pozz]. For bourgeois, meaning 'middle class,' the pronunciation is ['burs'wai], but as the name of a kind of type it is [bor'dzors].
316. Some speakers show a marked tendency to substitute [S] for [s], especially when it comes before [t], as in worst [wasst], pronounced [waist], distressed [dis'trest], pronounced [dis'trest], suggest [so'djest], pronounced [so'dzeft], etc. The pronunciation produces a spluttery untidy effect, which most persons find very disagreeable.
317. For rinse [rins], [rinz], popular dialect speech often has [rents]. The proper name Rensselaer ['rensə'le:x], ['rensla]], has a popular form ['rent§lax]. The pronunciation of pincers ['pinsouz] as ['pint $\int a r z$ ] is probably the result of the influence of pinch. It is possible that the pronunciation [rent5] for rinse has been affected by the analogy of wrench [rent]]. A half-way form, [rens], is also heard.

## [z]

318. The two common spellings for $[z]$ are $s$ and $z$, as in his [hrz], phase [ferz], despise [dr'sparz], misery ['mizori], accuse [æ'kju:z], visor ['varzax], Townsend ['taunzend], zone [zom], baize [berz], lazy ['le:zi], dizzy ['dizi], hazard ['hæza.d], lizard ['1ızard], etc. Hard and fast rules for $s$ pronounced $[z]$ cannot be given, because general rules are very much broken into by analogical groupings. Initial s, however, is never voiced, and the spellings c, ss never stand for [z], with the exception of scissors, see § 308, and Missouri, see § 313. Between vowels and in the neighborhood of voiced consonants, $s$ tends to become [z] by assimilation, as in house [haus], houses ['hauziz], but the operation of this tendency may be held in check by the influence of a head form, as in case [keıs], cases ['kersiz]; gas [gæs], gases ['gæsız]; lease [liss], leases ['lissz]; or the third singular of verbs,
like loose [lurs], looses ['lu:siz]. Likewise in the possessives of words ending in [s] the voiceless sound is preserved when the ending is added, as in moose [muss], moose's ['musisiz].
319. Inflectional s in the plurals and possessives of nouns and in the third singular present of verbs is [z], unless it is preceded by a voiceless consonant, as in cows [kauz], goes [gorz], paths [pæðz], wives [warvz], tubs [t^Abz], rides [raidz]; but cats [kæts], skiffs [skrfs], myths [miAs], walks [wotks], steps [steps], etc.
320. For Mrs. the common pronunciation is the same as for misses, that is, ['miszz] or ['misiz], but occasionally the final consonant is voiceless, ['misis]. The pronunciation with the medial consonant voiced, as in ['miziz], is said to be a sure test of Southern speech. ${ }^{1}$ But the test does not work both ways. It may be true that ['miziz] is always Southern, but it is not true that all Southerners say ['miziz]. In Southern pronunciation Mrs. is often monosyllabic, being merely [mIz], with perhaps the final consonant prolonged.
321. Words in which a stressed $s$ after a vowel is followed by the ending -ive usually have [s], but sometimes [z], as in abusive, conclusive, corrosive, diffusive, evasive, persuasive, incisive. The pronunciation with $\mathbf{s}$ is to be preferred. After $\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{r}$, when $\mathbf{s}$ is under the stress it remains as [s], as in pensive, defensive, expansive, impulsive, discursive.
322. Intervocalic $\mathbf{s}$ in unstressed syllables when it is not [5] or [3] (see $\$ \delta 327$ (e), 328 ff .), usually is pronounced

[^6][z], as in comparison, jettison, unison, venison, though sometimes [s] in all these words.

The usual pronunciation of usage is ['ju:sidz], the voiceless [s] being maintained by the stress. But ['ju:zidz] also is heard.
323. In newspaper the less usual pronunciation is ['njusz'pe-pos], in agreement with the uncompounded form news [njuzz]. Generally, the voiced $[z]$ is assimilated to the voiceless [p], giving ['njus'pe•por].
324. In Chinese, Japanese, Maltese, Siamese, Soudanese, etc., the final syllable is usually $[-i \cdot z]$, especially when the words stand in adjective position and are consequently lightly stressed, as in Siamese twins ['sarami-z 'twinz]. As the name of a people, for example, the Chinese, the Japanese, the words are more heavily stressed and are often pronounced with a voiceless con-

325. For Kansas, Arkansas, the pronunciation is ['kænzəs], [a. ${ }^{\prime}$ kænzes], rarely with [s] for the first consonant of the last syllable; but the pronunciation of Arkansas as ['arkon'sot] is the one accepted in the state and in the West generally. For Texas the usual pronunciation is ['teksas], less often ['teksəz].
326. The pronunciation of czar (sometimes spelled tzar) and derivatives is [zaix]. In a few words, especially Greek proper names, $\mathbf{x}$ is pronounced [ z ], as in Xenophon ['zenəfən], Xanthippe [zæn'trpi], Xerxes ['zorksiz], Xavier ['ze:via]], Xebec ['ziibek]. In avoirdupois the final consonant is always pronounced [z], see \& 315 .

## [5]

327. This sound is of very wide occurrence in the language and can best be treated under the heads of its various orthographic representations.
(a) $\mathrm{s}=[\mathrm{[ }]$ in sugar ['Suger], sure [Sur], [Suer], and derivatives of sure. The sound is not standard in any other words of this type, though occasionally heard in pronunciations like assume [a'Su:m] for [a'surm], [a'sju:m], ['Sumæk] for sumach ['summæk], especially in dialect speech.
(b) $\mathrm{sh}=[\mathrm{S}]$, as in ship [Sip], fish [frj], ashen ['æ§ən], shackle ['§ækl], fashion ['fæ§ən], and a large number of other words.
(c) $\mathbf{s c h}=\left[\int\right]$, but only in a few words of foreign origin, as in schottish, schottische ['SatrI], schist [Sist], a term in geology, schnapps [ [næps]. For schedule, see § 263; for schism, see § 308. Ordinarily sch $=$ sk [sk].
(d) $\mathbf{c h}=\left[\int\right]$, especially in words of French origin or words influenced by French pronunciation, as in chef [ $\left.\int e f\right]$, chalet [ [ $æ^{\prime}$ lex], chevalier [ $\int$ eva'liax], cheval [ $\mathrm{S}^{\prime}$ 'væl], chauvinism ['Sorvinızm], chandelier ['乌ændə'liə.], charade [ $\mathrm{J}^{\prime}$ re!d], chic [Sik], chassis [ $\int \mathfrak{w}^{\prime}$ sit], champagne [ $\int æ \mathrm{~m}^{\prime}$ 'pern], chiffonier [Sffo'niox] (very commonly also [Sef-]), chauffeur ['Sorfer] or [So'fax], chivalry ['Srvelri], chagrin [5a'grin], cheroot [Jo'ruit], chaise [ [Je:z], chamois ['§æmwa] (as the name of the animal), ['§æmI] (as the name of the skin of commerce), chiffon ['SIfon], chemise [ $\int \varepsilon^{\prime}$ misz], chicanery [SI'ke:nrri], mustache [məs'tæ]]; also in proper names, as in Charlotte ['Saulat], Champlain [ $£ æ m^{\prime}$ 'plenn], Charlevoix ['Saulavor], Cheyenne ['̧ar'en], Chenango [ [̧a'nængo], Chicago [Sr'ka!go] or [Sr'kotgo], Michigan ['mifigən], Cheboygan [SI'borgən], Chatauqua [ $\int \partial^{\prime}$ torkwo]. But [S] for ch is not universal in native American place names, some
having [tS], as in Chippewa ['tsipr'wot], Chillicothe [tsilr'koiti], Chicopee ['tSiko'pit], Cherokee ['tSero'kit], Chattanooga [tJæto'nuige].

For chivalry ['Srvalri] and derivatives a pronunciation ['tSIvalri] also obtains in England, but is never heard in America except as a Briticism.

An occasional pronunciation [pa'rofjel] is heard for the standard parochial [pa'ro:krol].
(e) Under this and the following heads are grouped instances in which an original $[\mathrm{s}]$ or $[\mathrm{t}]$, followed by an unstressed mid or high front sound, [e], [I] or [ju] combined with the vowel to form [J].
$\mathrm{ce}=[5]$, as in ocean ['o: 5 yn$]$, and in the ending -aceous, as in herbaceous [həa'be!fos], crustaceous [kras'te: $\int 2 s$ ], etc. For oceanic both [ofi'ænık] and [osi'ænik] occur.
(f) $\mathbf{c i}=[S]$, as in musician [mju'zifon], social ['sorjall],
 also ['e:ntfont], pacient ['pe:\{ənt], racial ['re:5ol], precious ['prefas], preciosity [prefi'ositi].

In the endings -ciate, -ciation, considerable difference of usage occurs, the general tendency of popular speech being to pronounce ci as [S], but in cultivated speech this tendency is sometimes interrupted, especially in formal discourse, in which the pronunciation [sI] is often preferred as being nearer to the spelling, as in enunciate
 [a'sors ${ }^{\prime}$ 'e $\cdot t$ t] or [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'so:ss'e.t], pronunciation [pro'nansi'e:fan] (but perhaps more commonly [pro'nınsi'e: $\int$ an], either from a desire to distinguish ci and ti in the word, or it may be because one is likely to be self-conscious in pronouncing



appreciation，enunciation，association，etc．，the ci is likely to be pronounced［8I］to avoid bringing two［S］－ sounds close together．
（g）sci＝［S］，as in conscious［＇kan〔es］，conscience［＇kan－


In formal speech instead of［［］］，sometimes［sI］is heard for sci，especially in learned words，like omniscient［om－ ＇nisiənt］，prescience［＇presiəns］．
$(h) \mathbf{s i}=[\mathrm{S}]$ ，as in mansion［＇mænfən］，dimension［dr－ ＇menfən］，transient［＇træn〔ənt］，in formal speech often ［＇trænsiənt］，Asia［＇e：5ə］，but also［＇e：zə］，fuchsia［＇fju：5ə］． In transient the consonant is sometimes voiced，giving ［＇trænzənt］．In Persia［＇pəxze］it is always voiced．See § 333 （a）．

The variant spelling x for［ks］appears in noxious ［＇nak ${ }^{2} \partial s$ ］，anxious［＇ænkjəs］．For axiom the standard pronunciation is［＇æksiəm］，the general tendency，which would produce［＇ækJom］，being held in check by the learned character of the word．
（i） $\mathrm{se}=[5]$ ，as in nausea［＇no：$\{$ ］and derivatives，but also pronounced［＇no：\｛iə］，［＇no：siə］，［＇no：zə］，［＇no！ziə］， ［＇no：zio］．
（j） $\mathrm{su}=[\mathrm{S}]$ ，the vowel also persisting，as in insular［＇m－ Sular］，peninsula［pen＇mfule］，sensual［＇sen§ual］，sexual ［＇sekSual］，consular［＇kan§ulax］，luxury［＇1hkjori］，less fre－ quently［＇lıgzəri］．

In all these words，which differ from those under（a） in that $\mathbf{s}$ is followed by $\mathbf{u}$ in an unstressed syllable，pro－ nunciations with［sj］also occur，as in［＇msjular］，［＇sensjual］， etc．，especially in formal and conscious speech．It is the ［j］element in［ju］that causes the［s］－sound to become［J］．
（ $k$ ） $\mathbf{s s i}=[5]$ ，as in mission［＇mifon］，passion［＇pæ〔ən］， discussion［dis＇k＾fən］，confession［kən＇fefən］，Ossian
 Prussia ['prajə].
( $l$ ) $\mathrm{ssu}=\left[\int\right]$, the vowel also persisting, as in issue $[\mathrm{r} \mathrm{T} u]$, tissue ['trju], fissure ['fifoxi] or ['fifor], pressure ['pre\{0x] or ['pre§or], commissure ['kamr'§or], a term in biology.

A careful pronunciation, as in ['rsju] or [' $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{fj} j$ ], is sometimes cultivated in these words, see also under (j). On the other hand, a slighter colloquial form is also to be observed, as in ['tijə] for tissue, especially as adjective in the phrase tissue paper.
( $m$ ) te $=[t \mathrm{t}]$, as in righteous ['rartfas], sometimes also courteous ['kartJas], though more commonly ['kartras]. Other words in -eous, as duteous, piteous, plenteous, bounteous, beauteous, have only the pronunciation ['djutios], etc., in agreement with their head forms duty, pity, plenty, bounty, beauty.

In amateur the stress falls in cultivated speech on the last syllable, [æma'tox], but quite generally in familiar speech, especially in such phrases as "amateur theatricals," "amateur standing," etc., the stress is on the first syllable, giving ['æmət〔ex].
(n) $\mathrm{t}=[\mathrm{S}]$, as in position [pə'zrfən], nation ['ne:\{ən], essential [I'senfal], Titian ['tifən], rational ['ræfənəl], ratio ['re:So], sentient ['senfont], though also ['sentiont] as a learned word.

For otiose, otium, the recognized dictionary pronunciations are [ofi'ois], ['or£ram], but the words are not current in colloquial use, and for that reason most speakers when compelled to pronounce them would follow the spelling.

For ratiocination both ['rætiosi'nerfon] and ['ræfrosi'nerfon] are in good use.

In words like differentiation, negotiation, substantia-
tion, the first ti is often pronounced [si] and the second [S], perhaps from a disinclination to have two [5]-sounds close together, see above, under ( $f$ ). In differentiation the influence of difference may also be of some weight. In differentiate, negotiate, substantiate, the value of ti is commonly [SI], and it remains so with probably the majority of speakers in differentiation, etc.

When ti is preceded by [s], the [ t ] assibilates to [ S$]$, but at the same time remains as [t] to avoid the juxtaposition of [s] and [S], as in question ['kwestJon], suggestion [so'dzestโon], Christian ['krist§on], etc. The pronunciation ['kristion] is very formal. See § 339 .

When ti is preceded by [ n ], ordinarily the ti is pronounced [ [J], as in mention ['menfon], attention [ $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ tenfən], convention [kən'venfən], etc.; but when a word is strongly stressed, the sound may become [tJ], as in Don't even mention it [dount isvn 'mentyən It], or in attention as a military command, which is reduced merely to the final syllable [ t §nn], with of course heavy stress. In such words the organic position for [t] is already assumed for the pronunciation of [ n ], and the special emphasis merely carries over the continuant $[\mathrm{n}]$ to a stop [ t$]$.

The history of these words in ti runs parallel in everything except orthography to words in si. Words of this type were first introduced into the language from French in the early Middle English period, and at the time of their appearance in the language they had already acquired in French a pronunciation [sı]. This pronunciation Modern French still retains in words like nation, intention, etc. Sometimes in the earlier periods one finds $\mathbf{t}$ replaced by $\mathbf{c}$ in spelling, as in nacion for nation ['næsion]. The influence of Latin orthography, however, was strong enough to prevent the carrying through of this rationaliz-
ing process in spelling, which would have resulted in a consistent spelling with $\mathbf{c}$ or s for t in words of this type. Instead a certain amount of inconsistency now appears in English spelling, as in (in)tention and (ex)tension, vicious and vitiate, both of these being pairs of etymologically the same word, or mention and (di)mension, etymologically different, but phonetically the same. Occasionally words with cti are written with $\mathbf{x}$, as in connection, connexion [kə'nєk\{ən], inflection, inflexion [ in 'flekjən], etc.
(o) $\mathrm{tu}=[\mathrm{t}]$ ], as in nature ['nertfor], feature ['firt $\rho_{0.1}$ ], creature ['krittfor], moisture ['morstfor], fortune ['fortfon], actual ['æktSual], virtuous ['vartSuəs], furniture ['fomnt5əax], etc. Formal pronunciations, e.g., ['nertfux], ['firtfux], etc., may occur.
For literature and other words of three or four syllables which may have a secondary stress on the final syllable, two pronunciations occur, ['IItərat5ex] or ['Irtora'tjux], the latter being the more formal and careful style.

The influence of manufacture [mænju'fæktfer] often produces a popular pronunciation [mænju'fæktforr] for manufactory, which in standard pronunciation is always [mænju'fæktəri].

The change of tu to [ts] implies a pronunciation of $u$ as [ru] or [ju], that is, ['nertjur], ['firtjux], etc. This pronunciation is historically recorded, and it was not until towards the close of the eighteenth century that the combination [tju] became [tsu] in generally accepted English. In fact, [tju] may still be heard occasionally in formal pronunciation. It was perhaps natural for the [ t$]$ to be retained, since it was pronounced, even when with the following sound it produced a [S], giving for older nature ['nertjur] the pronunciation ['nertfux]. In a word like nation, however, it was pointed out above that the t was
never sounded as [t] in English, but only as [s], and the combination therefore developed as si into [5]. If nation and similar words had come into the language with $\mathbf{t}$ sounded, for example ['neition], no doubt a pronunciation ['nertfon] would have resulted instead of ['nerfon]; and so also with [ t 5 ] for other words of this type. In short, the development of tu into [ t 5$]$ is a relatively late and exclusively English process, whereas the development of ti into [S] is not what it seems to be, but merely the development of a French [sI] into [S].

The pronunciation of $\mathbf{u}$ in the combination tu as [u], not [ju], resulted merely in a weakening of the vowel without any change in the character of the preceding consonant. Thus arose dialect pronunciations like critter for creature, nater, nateral for nature, natural, etc.

When the combination tu is under the stress, it remains [tju], as in mature [ma'tjux] or [ma'tjox], institute (noun) ['mstri'tjut], institution [mstr'tju£ən], astute [æs'tjutt], and in initial stressed syllables, as in tuber, Tudor, tunic, tutor, and the monosyllables tube and tune. Even in these stressed syllables the combination tu was formerly pronounced [ $\left.t \int u\right]$, but this is heard now only as a humorous pronunciation.

## [3]

328. This is the voiced equivalent of $[S]$ and is orthographically represented by $\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{g}=[\mathrm{d} 3]$, or by $\mathbf{s}$ or $\mathbf{z}$ before unstressed $\mathbf{i}$ or $\mathbf{u}$, often also by $\mathbf{d}$ before unstressed $\mathbf{i}$ or $\mathbf{u}$.
329. As the second element of the compound sound [dz], this consonant appears in join [dzom], judge [dzadz], gem [djem], gage [ge:d3], suggest [sa'd3est], allege [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'led3], ledge [ledz], bridge [brid3], magic ['mædzIk].

330．For malinger the standard pronunciation is ［mə＇lindzer］，though occasionally speakers are led to pronounce the word as though it were a variant form of linger［＇lingex］．

331．For margarine，or the compound oleomargarine， the common pronunciation is［＇masidzarm］or［＇masidzə－ ＇rimn，the historically correct pronunciation［＇mauggrin］ being now rarely heard．

332．For longevity，longitude，the pronunciation is always［lon＇dzevitr］，［＇lond3r＇tjuid］．For gibber，gibber－ ing，it may be［＇dzibox］，［＇dzibərin］or［＇gibor］，［＇gibərin］， but for gibberish it is always［＇grborif］．In gibbet，gibe， giblets，gill（quarter pint），gin（shortened form of engine and also shortened form of Geneva），ginseng，gist，the initial consonant is always［d3］．A dictionary should be consulted for a list of the words containing $g$ before front vowels．

333．Other occurrences of［ 3 ］are：
（a） $\mathrm{si}=[3]$ ，as in derision［dr＇rızən］，vision［＇vizən］， fusion［＇fjuızən］，abrasion［a＇brerzən］，occasion［⿰㇒⿻土一⿰丿𠃌⿱⿰㇒一乂⿳⺈⿴囗十一＇keizən］， erosion［I＇ro：zən］，osier［＇o：3əx］，Frasier［＇freszex］or［＇fre：－ зjəx］，hosier［＇ho：зәx］or［＇ho：зjəx］，gymnasium［dzrm＇net－ zəm］，symposium［sim＇po：zəm］，though for these last two words a learned pronunciation［－ziom］is also heard．
（b） $\mathbf{z i}=[3]$ ，as in glazier［＇gle：3əu］or［＇gle：3jox］，also written glasier，Frazier［＇fre：zex］or［＇fre！zjox］．
（c） $\mathbf{s u}=[3]$ ，with the vowel also persisting，as in treasure ［＇trezor］，pleasure［＇plezəa］，leisure［＇lezer］or［＇liryax］， closure［＇klorzer］，erasure［＇remzax］；usual［＇juizual］or ［＇juızjual］，visual［＇vizual］or［＇vizjual］，casual［＇kæjjual］ or［＇kæzjual］．

The standard pronunciation of Jesuit is ['dzezjurt], less commonly ['dzezjurt].

In luxurious the standard pronunciation is [ $\mathrm{lng}^{\prime}$ zuries].
(d) $\mathbf{z u}=[3]$, in azure ['eızəx] or ['æзə]].
(e) $\mathrm{di}=[\mathrm{d} 3]$, in cordial ['kordzal], soldier ['sorldzor], and sometimes in other words in -ial, -ient, -ious, -ium, as in medial, obedient, expedient, tedious, medium, radium, tedium, but usually in these words the endings have the value [-iəl], [-iənt], [-iəs], [-iəm].

In grandeur, de =[3], ['grændzar].
(f) $\mathbf{d u}=[\mathrm{dzu}]$, in modulate ['madzu'le•t], nodule ['nadzul], schedule ['skedzul], pendulum ['pendzuləm], individual [Indi'vidzual], etc. Instead of [dzu] in these words, careful and formal speech often has [dju], but the normal tendency is to pronounce [dzu].
(g) $\mathbf{t} \mathbf{i}=[3]$, in equation [ $\mathrm{r}^{\prime}$ kwe:zən], but also, in accordance with the usual value of $t i$ as [ [ ], [ $\left.I^{\prime} k w e: \int ŋ n\right]$. The pronunciation with [3] seems to have arisen by analogy to such words as invasion, abrasion, etc.
334. In some words of French origin, $\mathbf{g}$ is pronounced [3], as in rouge [ruiz], menage [ $m \varepsilon^{\prime}$ na:3], cortege [kor'te:3], mirage [mi'raı3], camouflage ['kæmu'fla:3], persiflage ['posisíflaiz].
335. The proper name Mosher is usually ['morzar]. It is also spelled Mosier, Mozier.
[ t ]
336. This sound is commonly represented by $\mathbf{t}$, $\mathbf{t t}$, but also by d in the preterites of many verbs when the ending -(e)d is assimilated to a preceding voiceless consonant. Examples of [ t ] are talk [to:k], lettuce ['letis], missed
[mist], slipped [slipt], coughed ['koft], wished [wift], and hosts of other words.
337. An orthographic $\mathbf{t}$ is silent in argot ['auggo], depot ['dirpo], ballet [bæ'ler] or ['bælı], buffet [bu'fer], chalet [ $\mathrm{F}^{\prime}$ 'ler], valet [ $\mathrm{v} \mathrm{m}^{\prime} \mathrm{ler}$ ] or ['væli], but more fashionably now ['velit], parquet [par'keI] as the name of a part of a theater, but [pai'ket] as the name of a kind of flooring. All these words are of comparatively recent French origin. In trait, final $\mathbf{t}$ is not pronounced in British usage, but in America it is always pronounced.
338. In the orthographic combination -ction, the $\mathbf{t}$ is silent, as in perfection [pər'fekjən], suction ['sıkjən],
 In the combination -ctu-, usage varies between [kt5] and [ kJ ], as in actual ['æktSual] or ['ækSual], juncture ['d $3 \wedge \eta k-$

 or [mænju'fæk $\int_{ə x}$ ], etc., though in formal and careful speech the pronunciation with $[t]$ is preferred.
339. In the combinations -sti-, -stu-, a [t] is always pronounced in cultivated speech, pronunciations like
 [egz'oistfon], question ['kwestโən], fixture ['frkstโer], mixture ['mikst $9^{2}$ ] being slovenly English.
340. In the combinations stl, stn, ftn, no [t] is pronounced, as in epistle [r'pisll], thistle [' 'risl], nestle ['nesl], jostle ['dzosl], hustle ['hasl], soften ['sofn], often ['ofn], listen ['lisn], fasten ['fæsn], chasten ['tJersn], moisten ['morsn], chestnut ['t tjes'nat]. In connected discourse, the combination stn appears in must not, which is commonly pronounced ['masnt], except in precise speech where the
words are consciously held apart. In often there is some tendency to restore the $\mathbf{t}$ in pronunciation, through the influence of spelling. But ['ofn] is still the prevailing form. In rapid colloquial speech the combination let us frequently becomes [les], e.g., Let us go and see [les gor n sii].
341. For the orthographic combinations nch, lch, a pronunciation [ntS], [lt5] is generally current, though less frequently one also hears [ n S$]$, [IS], as in pinch [pintS] or [pinS], bench [bentS] or [benS], launch [lointS] or [lomS], filch [filts] or [fill], belch [beltS] or [bel5], gulch [gNltS] or [galj]. For Welsh the spelling usually preserves a pronunciation [welf], but in the verb and noun probably derived from this word, meaning to slide from under one's obligations, both spellings occur, welch, welcher and welsh, welsher, and a corresponding variation in pronunciation. In American usage the pronunciation of all these words with [ntS], [ltS] is to be preferred. See § 246. For the combination ns, the pronunciation in America is usually [nts], as in dense [dents], not distinguishable from dents, mince [mmts], not distinguishable from mints, etc. But some speakers say [dens], [mins] for dense, mince, etc.
342. A [ t$]$ is often omitted in the popular dialects after [p], as in [slep], [kep], [krep] for slept [slept], kept [kept], crept [krept].
343. A $[t]$ is sometimes added in popular speech after [s] in words where it does not appear in standard speech, as in [wanst], [twaist] for once, twice, [wift] for wish, [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'krost] for across, [klo:st] for close. So also [ $\partial^{\prime}$ trkt] for attack $\left[a^{\prime} t æ k\right]$. On the other hand, $[t]$ is frequently
omitted after [s] in popular speech, as in [d3^s], [ris], [hois], [neks] for just [d3ast], wrist [rist], host [hoist], next [nekst], etc. In waistcoat, Westcott, the final consonant of the first syllable is usually silent, both words being pronounced ['weskət]. But waistcoat is rarely used in America, the common word being vest. In locust few cultivated speakers would acknowledge omitting the final consonant, yet in current speech it is doubtful if one ever hears it.
344. In the combination [kt], $[\mathrm{t}]$ is sometimes omitted in the popular dialects, insect ['rnsekt], contact ['kantækt], perfect ['parfikt], aqueduct ['ækwr'dnkt], becoming ['msek], ['kantæk], ['parfık], ['ækwi'dsk], etc.
345. For partner ['pasitnex], popular speech often has ['paisdner].
346. In asked [a 1 skt], [æskt], many speakers pronounce no [ t ], saying [æsk], especially when the next word begins with a consonant; or some speakers omit [ k ], lengthening the preceding consonant, as in [æstt]. In no case, not even in the most formal or careful speech, are both a fully articulated $[\mathrm{k}]$ and $[\mathrm{t}]$ pronounced. What happens in cultivated speech is that after [s] the tongue position for $[\mathrm{k}]$ is assumed, but is held without explosion until the position for $[t]$ has been reached. There is thus only one genuine stop consonant in asked. Other words of this type, like basked, masked, etc., are not in familiar use and are consequently likely to be pronounced with emphasis on the orthographic elements of the words. See § 15.

In a combination like next time, usually only one $t$ is pronounced, as in [neks tarm]; in next station both $s$ and t of next are usually silent in cultivated colloquial speech,
as in [nck 'ste:\{on]. And as a matter of fact, even the [ k$]$ is often not fully articulated; the stoppage for $[\mathrm{k}]$ is assumed, but the explosion is not completed.

In the spelling eighth, the th stands for tth, though the explosion for the $\mathbf{t}$ is not completely made. The gh being silent, the phonetic form of the word is approximately [ette].

## [ $\theta$ ]

347. The spelling for this sound is always th, but this spelling stands for both $[\theta]$ and $[\delta]$, see $\S \S 30,31$.

Examples of $[\theta]$ are path [pa: $\theta$ ], [pæ日], thin [ $\theta \mathrm{m} \mathrm{m}]$, faith [fe: $\theta$ ], both [bo: $\theta$ ], month [ $\mathrm{m} \wedge n \theta$ ], froth [fro $\theta$ ], frothy ['fro $\theta \mathrm{I}$ ], myth [mi ], mythology [mi' alad3i].
348. A th of the spelling is pronounced [ $t$ ] in thyme [tarm], Thomas ['taməs], ['toməs], Thompson ['tampsən], ['tompsan]. For isthmus only ['is $0 \mathrm{~m} \partial \mathrm{~s}$ ] is current in America, but in England both ['is $\theta$ mes] and ['istmes]. In rapid speech the word may become ['isməs]. For Esther the common pronunciation is ['Estar], but occasionally also ['عsӨax]. The Thames, a river in England and in Connecticut, is always [temz]. The proper name Anthony is usually ['æn $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { nni }\end{aligned}$, sometimes ['æntənI], though when pronounced in the latter way, it is usually made to conform in spelling.
349. In the combination [ff], [ $\mathrm{s} \theta$ ], popular speech often has [t] for [ $\theta$ ], as in [fift] for fifth [frfe] or [fifte], [sikst] for sixth [sikst] or [sikste]. In months popular speech often omits $[\theta]$, pronouncing the word [ $\mathrm{m} \wedge \mathrm{ns}$ ].
350. For standard height [hatt], popular usage also has [hartt], parallel to width, breadth, length.
［ $\delta$ ］
351．This sound is the voiced equivalent of $[\theta]$ and is spelled th．In the earlier stages of the language［ $\delta$ ］oc－ curred only between vowels or between a voiced con－ sonant and a vowel．In relatively unstressed position， however，voiceless continuants tend to become voiced， $[\theta]$ becoming［ $\gamma$ ］，and many words like this［ $\delta \mathrm{is}$ ］，that
 though［ $\overline{0} 0 \mathrm{u}$ ］，with［wiठ］，which are only slightly stressed in the word groups in which they occur，have now［ $\gamma$ ］in－ stead of earlier $[\theta]$ ．Analogy and the loss of vowels in unstressed syllables also obscure the old rule，so that now ［ $\gamma$ ］appears not only between vowels，but also finally in words like bathe［ber $\delta$ ］，breathe［brit $\delta$ ］，lathe［ler $\delta$ ］， clothe［klo：ð］，sheathe［ $\mathrm{Si} \delta]$ ，wreathe［ri：ð］，and many others．

352．Singular nouns with final $[\theta]$ may change to［ $\gamma$ ］ in the plural，as in path［pæ日］，paths［pæðz］，bath［bæ日］， baths［bæðz］，moth［mot］，moths［məðz］；but the analogy of the singular may maintain［日］in the plural，as in Goth
 ［d $\varepsilon \theta$ ］，deaths［d $\varepsilon \theta \mathrm{s}$ ］．A plural moths［ $\mathrm{m} \rho \mathrm{oss}_{\mathrm{s}}$ ］is recorded in the dictionaries，but the only form the writer has ever heard is［mっðz］．

353．For rhythm both $[\mathrm{rr} \partial \mathrm{m}]$ and $[\mathrm{ri} \theta \mathrm{m}]$ occur，the former being much the more common．The same diver－ sity of use appears in derivatives，as in rhythmic，rhyth－ mical，but some speakers who pronounce［rrom］in the simple word，say［＇riөmik］，［＇riOmikl］in the derivatives， the reason being that in the derivatives the consonant stands at the end of a syllable，not between two voiced sounds，as in［rıðm］．
354. For asthma the current formal pronunciation is ['æzðmə], though often also ['æzmə]. The British pronunciation is ['æs0mə], ['æsmə] or ['æstmə].
355. Before [ z ], in popular speech [ $\gamma$ ] is often omitted, as in clothes [klo: $\%$ z] pronounced [klozz], oaths [o: $\% \mathrm{z}$ ] pronounced [o:z], etc.
356. In the popular dialects $[\theta]$, $[\delta]$ sometimes completely disappear, being replaced by [ t$]$ and [d], as in think pronounced [tink], that pronounced [dæt], with pronounced [wit] or [wId].

## [f]

357. The representation of [f] in the ordinary spelling is $\mathbf{f}$, ff, gh or ph, as in find [faind], stiff [stif], sniffed [snift], rough [raf], cough [korf], Brough [braf], laugh [laif], [læf], nephew ['nefju], philosophy [fil'osefi], sylph [silf]. For lieutenant [lu'tenənt] the pronunciation [lef'tenənt], [lif-], is sometimes heard, but it is not general with any group of American speakers. It is common in England. For nephew both ['nefju] and ['nevju] occur, though the former is the more general pronunciation. For hiccough the only pronunciation is ['hrkəp]. For the history of this word, see the New English Dictionary.
358. In the connected discourse of colloquial usage, a final [ v ] is sometimes assimilated to a succeeding voiceless consonant, becoming [f], as in I have to go [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'hæf ta 'gou]. But what might be permissible in this phrase, is not permissible generally, e.g., one cannot say I'd love to go [ard 'laf to 'gou].
359. In the combination phth the pronunciation [f] for ph is sometimes replaced by [p], as in diphthong ['dif0on]
or ['drpoon], diphtheria [dif'tirie] or [drp'trrie], naphtha ['næf $\theta_{0}$ ] or ['næp $\theta$ e]. The pronunciation with [ $f$ ] is perhaps to be preferred, though usage is far from being uniform. See $\delta 299$. For phthisic the accepted pronunciation is ['tizik], but phthisis is said to be pronounced ['taisis]. Neither word is in common use.

## [v]

360. This sound is the voiced equivalent of [ f ], and is commonly represented by $\mathbf{v}$, as in live [liv] (verb), [larv] (adj.), vivid ['vivid], shoved [ [^Avd], dived [darvd]. In nephew ['nevju] and Stephen ['stivven] it is spelled ph.
361. When [f] of a main form becomes voiced in an inflectional form, the spelling always changes to $\mathbf{v}$, as in wife [waff], wives [warvz], loaf [loff], loaves [lorvz], etc., but wife's [wafs], griefs [grifs], laughs [lafss], [læfs], third singular present of the verb, or plural of the noun, where the consonant remains unchanged.
Some plurals have both a form with [f] and one with [v], as in hoof [huif], hoofs [huifs] or hooves [huivz]; scarf [skauff, scarfs [skauffs] or scarves [ska!.ivz]. The plural of staff is staffs, except as a technical term in music, where it is staves [stervz].
362. In archaic and poetic style an intervocalic [v] is sometimes omitted, the omission being indicated by the apostrophe, as in e'er [eiox] for ever, o'er [orax] for over, etc.
363. The preposition of usually stands in unstressed position and is pronounced [əv], or in rapid speech [ə], as in five o'clock [farv e klak], time of day [taim a deI], man of war [mæn ə wou].
364. Final [v] in give is sometimes omitted before [m] in colloquial speech, give me ['giv mi] becoming ['gi mı]. This is spelled in dialect orthography as gimme, and though by no means limited to illiterate or dialect use, under the influence of the printed and written language it is coming to be more and more discredited. Cf. let me pronounced ['lemi], and see above, § 100.

## [w]

365. The spelling of this sound is commonly w , as in win [win], swing [swin], twig [twig], between [bi'twim], or $u$, as in languid ['længwid], language [læn'gwid3], persuade [por'swerd], and $u$ after $q$, as in quire ['kwarer], question ['kwestJən], quack [kwæk], conquest ['kankwest] or ['kankwest].
366. The spelling gu represents usually [g], as in guard [gaind], guest [gest], guide [gaid], guess [ges], guile [garl], etc., but in a few words of foreign origin, as in guano ['gwa:no], guava ['gwaive], and in Guelph [gwelf], the $\mathbf{u}$ is pronounced.
367. The sound [w] appears in one [wın], once [wans], in pronunciaton but not in spelling. The verb won and one are exact homonyms. A w appears in the spelling of two [tu:], sword [so:Id], but not in pronunciation. Before rasilent $w$ is frequently written, as in wring [rin], write [wrait], wrap [ræp], wrist [rist], etc. For choir the pronunciation is the same as for quire, that is ['kwarar].
368. In a few words of French origin the ending -oir is pronounced [-wax] or [-wor], as in memoir ['memwax], ['memwor], reservoir ['rezar'vwax], ['rezas'vwor]; but reservoir is also often pronounced without [w], as ['rezà'vorer].
369. An initial $\mathbf{w}$ of an unstressed syllable following a stressed one sometimes weakens and disappears, as regularly in answer ['ænsox], and in the combination qu in chequer ['tऽeker], conquer ['kaŋkəa], liquor ['likex]. In compositional syllables, like -ward, -worth, -wich, -wick, which have a secondary stress in American speech, w is generally pronounced when written; but in toward, towards [toud], [toadz] the words are monosyllables without [w]. Thus in proper names, as in Woodward, Woolworth, Woolwich (Maine), Norwich, Greenwich, etc., [w] is pronounced, except that one may occasionally hear ['grimitS], ['grints], as a literary or acquired pronunciation. In the town in Connecticut of that name, the local pronunciation is ['gri:n'wits].
370. A w frequently appears in spelling, at the ends of words, which has no consonantal value but is merely an orthographic survival from an earlier [w] which became vocalic and which would thus be more accurately represented by $\mathbf{u}$. Conventional spelling, however, rarely permits $u$ to stand at the end of a word, exceptions being thou [ $\delta \mathrm{du}$ ], and a few foreign words like gnu [nu:], zebu ['zis'bu']. A vocalized w stands in the spelling of draw [drot], know [nou], sow [sou], [sau], few [fjut], grew [gru:], now [nau], etc. The spelling with $w$ persists in derivative forms, but is silent there also, as in drawing ['dro:in], sower ['so:ax], fewer ['fju:ax].
371. A w with no consonantal value appears occasionally in spelling before consonants, as in bawl [boil], yawl [joll], hawk [hoik], bowl [bo:l], howl [haul], brown [braun], drowse [drauz], newt [njuit], mewl [mjuil], or before a weak syllable with [ [ ] , [1], [n], as in power ['pauar], towel ['taual], Owen ['oəən], Cowan ['kauən], etc.

## [ M ]

372. This sound is the voiceless equivalent of [w], and in America it is generally pronounced wherever written wh, as in what [mat], which [mit]], wheat [mitt], whit [mit], white [мatt], whisper ['мispar]], etc. Some speakers, however, pronounce all these voiceless sounds voiced, as in whit [wit] not distinguished from wit, white [wart] not distinguished from wight. Though not vulgarisms, such pronunciations are usually discountenanced by careful speakers and in formal instruction. In standard British speech of the Southern type $\mathbf{w}$ and $\mathbf{w h}$ are generally both pronounced as [w].
373. In who and derived forms of who, whole, the initial consonant is neither [w] nor [ M ], but [ h ], as in [hut], [horl]. So also whoop, whooping-cough, which may be spelled hoop, hooping-cough, are pronounced [huip], ['hu:pin-] or ['hupin'ko:f].

## EXERCISES

(1) Make a collection of sounds not used in articulate speech (e.g., the sigh, cough, cluck, click, sniff, 'humph,' 'huh,' 'eh,' ' hm ,' the sound for calling a cat, for starting horses, etc.), and analyze them phonetically. Record them in phonetic script, inventing symbols when necessary. See §§ 3, 4.
(2) Take a page of any ordinary English prose and make a list in phonetic script of all the words containing (a) voiced stops, (b) voiceless stops, (c) voiced continuants, (d) voiceless continuants.
(3) In these words, note what sounds have been affected, and in what way, by their proximity to other sounds. See § 6.
(4) Make a list from the same passage of all words containing fricative continuants, lateral continuants and nasal continuants.
(5) Make lists in phonetic script of all the words on this same page which contain the same vowel sound.
(6) Go through this page and note the instances in which the ordinary spelling is the same or approximately the same as the phonetic transcriptions.
(7) In the same passage, observe where the breaks or pauses come in natural easy reading. Transcribe the passage into these 'breath groups' instead of the usual division into words. See § 100.

A minute study of a single passage, such as is suggested in Exercises 2-7, is better preliminary discipline than the study of scattering texts.
(8) Practice the vowel sounds in sequence, starting with the lowest unround vowel and proceeding to the highest, then the lowest rounded vowel, proceeding to the highest; reverse the process, starting with the high vowels.
(9) Practice such pairs of sounds as [e] and [ $\varepsilon]$, [i] and $[\mathrm{I}],[\mathrm{u}]$ and $[\mathrm{U}],[0]$ and $[0],[\mathrm{A}]$ and $[\mathrm{At}],[0]$ and $[\mathrm{at}]$, until the distinction between tense and slack sounds is quite clear.
(10) Pronounce the sentences It was covered with furs, It was covered with firs, It was covered with furze, It was covered with fuzz, to a hearer, and see if he can tell when you mean furs, firs, furze, fuzz. If you do not pronounce these words alike, analyze the organic differences.

As a similar exercise pronounce the sentence The container was well caulked and The container was well corked, and see if a hearer can tell which word you have in mind. If so, extend the experiment to other persons to see if the words are always audibly distinct.
(11) Make a collection of difficult phrases, like Peter Piper pickt a peck of pickled peppers, She sells seashells, etc., and analyze their phonetic character. Make a collection of phrases which are memorable not for their difficulty but for their phonetic 'haunting' quality, agreeable or disagreeable, e.g., a pink trip slip for a five cent fare; the exhaustless grace of Niagara's emerald curve; the multitudinous seas incarnadine, etc. Each person's list will naturally be different from any other. Make a list of alliterative phrases, like bag and baggage, stock and stone, head and heels, time and tide. Make a list of striking alliterative phrases, such as are often met with in newspaper headlines. An interesting study of consonant sounds can be made on the basis of Lyly's

Euphues, or still better, George Pettie's Petite Pallace of Pleasure (1576), in which the resources of the language in sounds are utilized with the utmost ingenuity for the purpose of stylistic ornamentation.
(12) Take a word containing an initial voiceless stop, e.g., pay, and practice this stop with and without audible aspiration until the difference becomes clear. See § 13. Then pronounce words containing a voiceless stop between voiced sounds, as in witty, putty, potato, dainty, bottle, pippin, winter, better, water, stopper, etc., with weak and with audible aspiration, and note which is the better pronunciation. See § 14.
(13) Analyze fully the phonetic elements of a number of words like stripped, booked, robbed, drugged. See § 15.
(14) Repeat pairs of words like sit and sin, pit and pin, bid and bin, did and din, and then segregate the final consonants in order to study the difference between stop consonants and nasal continuants.
(15) Repeat pairs of words like sin and sing, win and wing, to make clear the difference between $[\mathrm{n}]$ and $[\mathrm{n}]$.
(16) Repeat groups of words like sin, sing, sink; win, wing, wink; thin, thing, think, and then analyze their phonetic elements.
(17) Note the sound of [ n$]$ in fount, found; shunt, shunned; sun, sunset, Sunday, sunbeam. Is it equally long in all these words? Study in general the length of the continuant consonants in different combinations.
(18) Note the length of the vowel in led, let; bed, bet; said, set; sad, sat; hod, hot, etc. Though these are all short vowels, are they all equally short? Cf. § 80 .
(19) Examine all the occurrences of $[z]$ on a page of ordinary prose, and note in what instances the sound ends in a voiceless vanish. See $\S 36$.
(20) Study the difference in the sound of [ n ] in sing and song, and collect other words illustrating the same difference.
(21) Study the sound of [ k ] in keel and call, of [g] in geese and gall, of [ h$]$ in heel and haul, and add other illustrations of the same variation in the quality of the consonant.
(22) Imitate the speech of one who has a cold in the head, and indicate its phonetic character in transcription.
(23) Take a passage of ordinary colloquial prose and pronounce the vowels as nasally as you can, that is, caricature it. Then pronounce the vowels with as little nasalization as possible. Does your own speech fall between these two extremes?
(24) Observe in the speech of those with whom you come in contact, any manner of speech which might be characterized as 'drawling,' and describe its phonetic character.
(25) Some of the vague descriptive adjectives which are occasionally applied to speech or to special sounds are 'broad,' 'rough,' 'flat,' 'liquid,' 'thin,' 'mushy,' 'muddy,' 'crisp,' 'sharp.' Add others to this list, and endeavor to determine what is meant by them in terms of the organic analysis of speech.
(26) Make a collection of those speech characteristics which in your estimation are evidences (a) of special refinement or distinction in speech, (b) of 'common' or unrefined speech. Try to determine how generally your judgments would be acceptable to others.
(27) Examine the pronunciation of $\mathbf{r}$ in the speech of as many different persons as possible, and note how many types of r -sound are distinguishable within the range of your observation.
(28) Start a list of words which may be stressed in two or more different ways.
(29) Transcribe in phonetic notation (a) first your own speech in detached phrases as you can hear yourself pronounce them, (b) your own speech in connected conversation, (c) your own speech as you hear it in reading aloud.
(30) Transcribe in phonetic notation the speech of some other person or persons than yourself. For this purpose, choose one or two individuals whose speech you have the best opportunity of studying, and preferably whose speech impresses you as being ordinarily somewhat different from your own. Proceed very slowly at first, transcribing only phrases which you are sure you have heard correctly.
(31) Take a passage of English prose and transcribe it first into very formal literary style, then into ordinary reading style, and then into very familiar colloquial style.
(32) If your own speech is of the Eastern American type, transcribe a passage illustrating it into Western American speech, etc.
(33) Transcribe the passages of dialect speech given in this volume into informal standard speech.
(34) Make a transcription of some dialect speech with which you are orally familiar. Indicate the elements in this pronunciation which are really dialectal and those which are merely standard colloquial.
(35) Transcribe the passages of British pronunciation given in this volume into standard American pronunciation.

These exercises are not systematically arranged, and are not intended to be exhaustive either of the topics
discussed in this book or of the points of interest which may engage the attention of the student of phonetics. They are merely suggestive, and the number of them will readily be increased in the practical work of the classroom.

## BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Of the numerous works on general phonetics, perhaps the most useful brief books in English are Elements of Phonetics by Walter Rippmann (on the basis of Viëtor's Kleine Phonetik), published by J. M. Dent and Sons; Introduction to Phonetics by Laura Soames (The Macmillan Co.); General Phonetics by G. Noël-Armfield (W. Heffer and Sons, Cambridge, Eng., 1915). For special studies of English pronunciation, reference may be made to The Pronunciation of English by Daniel Jones (Cambridge University Press), and to various other publications by Jones, including A Phonetic Dictionary of the English Language by Hermann Michaelis and Daniel Jones (Carl Meyer, Hannover and Berlin); The Pronunciation of English in Scotland by William Grant (Cambridge University Press); Northern English by R. J. Lloyd (Teubner, Leipzig and Berlin, 1908), particularly valuable for the comparison of British and American English; The Sounds of Spoken English by Walter Rippmann (J. M. Dent and Sons). Little has been done in the way of special study of American speech, but reference should be made to Professor Grandgent's article, English in America, in Die Neweren Sprachen, II, 443-467 (1894), where a further bibliography of publications by Professor Grandgent will be found; also in the same journal, II, 520-528, a group of phonetic transcriptions. From Franklin to Lowell, A Century of New England Pronunciation, by Professor Grandgent, in the Publications
of the Modern Language Association, XIV, 207-239, gives a valuable historical survey of New England speech. The various numbers of Dialect Notes, the publication of the American Dialect Society, should also be consulted. On the general question of standard, the student may consult the two books by Professor Lounsbury, The Standard of Usage in English and The Standard of Pronunciation in English (Harpers, New York). For the general history of English sounds, see Jespersen, A Modern English Grammar, Part I, Sounds and Spellings (Winter, Heidelberg, 1909). As a number of the books mentioned in this note are appearing from time to time in new editions, it is advisable in ordering always to ask for the latest edition.

## TRANSCRIPTIONS

## I

## ＇der－＇drimz

$æ z$ aI wəz stepm $\partial$＇§os，aI wəz＇gristid bai＇mistəx
 pitəblr æskt if aI wəェ＇going hiz wer．hiz wer wəz
 5 ＇pakits wəa ful әv＇pe！pərz nd hiz brau әv＇rigklz；so men wi ritfft $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\theta}$ point mex his Sod tarn orf，ar æskt mm to let mi ə＇lart，ol＇ðoı hi woz＇veri＇æŋkjas to ＇kærı mi mer＇evar aI wəz＇go：Ip．
＂aim＇omin＇stroilin ə＇baut，＂ar＇ænsead，æz ai 10＇klæmbəュd＇keıffalı aut əv $\varnothing$ ə＇wægn．
＂＇stro：lin ə＇baut？＂æskt his，in ə bi＇wildəəd＇mæ－ nə．r；＂du＇pispl stroll a＇baut，＇nau－－－＇derz？＂
＂səm＇tarmz，＂ar＇ænsərd，＇smarlin，æz ar puld mar ＇trauzarz daun＇ovex mar busts，fox סe• hæd drægd
$15 \Lambda \mathrm{p}$ ，æz ar stept aut əv $\gamma_{\partial}$＇wægn，＂nd bi＇said，«at kn n o：ld＇bu＇krịpər du＇betəェ in Әә dлl＇si：zn Әən
 si！？＂
bəan lukt æt mi wrò hiz＇wiərr azz．＂aid giv farv ＇סauzand＇dalasz ə＇jıョ fox ə dal＇sizzən，＂sed his， ＂bət æz fəx＇strolln，arv fəx＇gatn hav．＂
æz hi spork，hiz aiz＇wondəəd＇drimmilr ə＇kros $\boldsymbol{\partial}^{\prime}$ filldz nd wudz，nd wəa＇fæsnd ə＇pən ${ }^{\prime}$ ə＇distənt seilz．
"it iz 'pleznt," hi sed 'mjuzinlı, ænd fel 'rntu 'sar25 lans. bat ai had no taim to speis, so aI wift im 'gud'æftar'nu:n.
"ar horp jex waif s wel," sed boun to mI, æz ar tomd ə'wer. 'puar bam! hi dro:v on ə'lom m hiz 'wægn.
bot ar me•d heist to $\partial \partial$ moist 'salr'terr pornt əpon

 عas, бat givz to 'indin-'samar derz 'al'most a 'hjumən 'tendaunas ev 'fillin. ə 'delikrt herz, סət simd

 'voisəz əv 'țildrən in ə bort br'jond, ræn 'mjuzikəlr,
 'distəns.

 aI so'porzd, æt farst, to bi 'ounlı ə karnd əv mi'raiz. bət бə məı 'sted'fæstly ai geizd, ठə morr dis'tinkt it

 from $\delta$ ə lænd.
"rts n ik'stroadr'neri pless to 'ænkax," ar sed to 'mar'self, "oa kæn Si bi ə'Sou?"

 ə'pon ðә Sraudz. ә flæg, әv mitS ar kud nat si: бә di'vars ə. 'ne:fən, hıŋ 'hevilı æt $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ stəm, ænd lukt æz If it hæd 'forln ə'sliıp. mar 'kjuri'asiti br'gæn to

55 nat to bi 'pərmənənt; bat wir'in ə 'kwoxtax əv ən 'auər, aI wəz 'Suə』 $\partial æ t$ ar hæd sim hæf ə 'dszn 'dif-

 as strent nd strf，laik бә legz әv ə＇sii－＇monstəa．
＂Its sam＇blortid kræb，əェ＇labstəa，＇mægni＇fard bai бə mist，＂ar sed to mar＇self，kəm＇ple•səntlı．
 ＇flæ〔in nd＇bleazin in wan spat ə＇mıy бә＇rigıy，ænd
 ＇driftin＇siıwoad．ә streindz＇froェ＇kəadld ə＇loŋ mar veinz．סæt＇saməa san Soin kuil．ઈə＇wiər＇bætord〔ip woz gæft，æz if notd bai ais．סex woz＇tere．in סә عu，æz ə＂＇skmi hænd so braun＂wervd tu mi

 hænd $\boldsymbol{~ v} \mathrm{d} \varepsilon \theta$ ．
de日？Mar，æz aI wəz＇inlı＇prem pru：z fəs＇givnəs fox mai＇salr＇teri＇ræmbl nd＇kansi＇kwent di＇marz，ə
 ＇Siup－＇skin，＇splendid æz రә heıs әv＇berə＇naisi．
＂Iz סæt $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\prime}$＇go：ldn flis？＂＂ar $\theta$ ort．＂bət＇Suərlr，＇dzer－ son nd סi＇asga＇norts hæv gom horm lon sms．du ＇pispl go：on＇goald－＇flissin ekspi＇dijənz nau？＂ar æskt mai＇self，in pər＇pleksitr．＂kæn סis bi ə kælı＇fomjə ＇stitmor？＂
hau kud ar hæv $\theta$ ost it $\partial$＇stismər？did ar nat sis סoiz seilz，＂$\theta$ in ənd＇siəa＂？did ai nat fill $\delta ə$＇melən－ ＇kalı əv סæt＇sali＇teri basak？It hæd ə＇mistik＇ourə； ə＇boriəl＇briljonsi＇Siməad in its wesk，for it wəz mi ；or oidəa əv fluuərz ond $\partial \mathrm{v}$ iistom gamz me＇d
 drank wið baım，mail бæt stremdz Sip，ə＇goaldn ＇gæli nau，wið＇glitorin＇drespe＇riz fes＇tuind wið ＇flauərz，peist tu бə＇mezərd bist әv＇วเәлz ə＇loŋ бə
 'pædzonts hast.
 Srp ar sor? it hæd ə 'rumd 'digniti, a 'kambras 'grænd3əa, ol'ðo: its mæsts wəa 'Sætəad, nd its seilz 95 rent. it hay 'pritas'næt〔erill stıl $\partial^{\prime}$ pon סə sit, æz if tos'mentid nd ig'zoistid bar lon 'drarvip nd 'driftin. ar sot no 'sellarz, bat a gre•t 'spænr 'ensam 'flortid 'over, ænd wervd, ə fju'nirral pluim. ar nju: it סzn. бr as'mardə wəz loŋ sms 'skæterd; bət 'flortin faıs
100
on 'deso'let 're:nr si:z,
lost for 'sentSu'riz, and ə'gen ri'stoxd to sart, 'hrox ler

 'gildid Sips əv klord lo'remn ${ }^{\prime}$ 'genst $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ 'san'set.
ro5 bat it fled, fox nau a blæk flæg 'flistaュd æt бə 'mæst'hed - ə lon lou 'vesl 'dautid 'swiftli mear $\partial$ ə
 'katlisaz, fiəss 'ripin oưzz, §axp 'pistəl kræks, סə
 nio dr'mo niæk 'kərəs,
mai nerm wəz rabost kid, men ar serld.
 at sot a bausk 'mavin wro' 'festəl pomp, $\theta$ rond wir grevv 'senə'torz in 'flo:in roibz, and wan wro 'djukal


 'e•dri'ætık.
 r20 $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{0}$ borts, ənd spræn 'mtu $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime}$ 'wotər, men in orld 'spænr! 'a:amə., wið plu:mz nd soudz, ənd 'berrin ə
glitərin kros？hu：wəz hi：＇stændıŋ ə＇pon סेə dek wro＇fo：ldıd aumzz ænd＇geizin toudz бə 〔əぃı，æz＇luvəaz
 125 mat＇distænt ænd tu＇maltJuas sizz hæd $\mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{is}}$ smon kræft I＇ske•pt fram＇$\Lambda$＇əəェ＇sentfuriz ænd＇distænt §oriz？mat saundz әv＇form himz，fəx＇gatn nau，wər סiiz，ænd mat so＇lemniti əv＇di•bas＇kerfən？waz סis greiv form ko＇lımbes？

## Day－dreams

As I was stepping ashore，I was greeted by Mr． Bourne，who passes the summer on the island，and who hospitably asked if I were going his way．His way was toward the southern end of the island，and I said yes．His pockets were full of papers and his brow of wrinkles；so when we reached the point where he should turn off，I asked him to let me alight，al－ though he was very anxious to carry me wherever I was going．
＂I am only strolling about，＂I answered，as I clambered carefully out of the wagon．
＂Strolling about？＂asked he，in a bewildered man－ ner；＂do people stroll about，now－a－days？＂
＂Sometimes，＂I answered，smiling，as I pulled my trousers down over my boots，for they had dragged up，as I stepped out of the wagon，＂and beside，what can an old bookkeeper do better in the dull season than stroll about this pleasant island，and watch the ships at sea？＂

Bourne looked at me with his weary eyes．
＂I＇d give five thousand dollars a year for a dull season，＂said he，＂but as for strolling，I＇ve forgotten how．＂

As he spoke, his eyes wandered dreamily across the fields and woods, and were fastened upon the distant sails.
"It is pleasant," he said musingly, and fell into silence. But I had no time to spare, so I wished him good-afternoon.
"I hope your wife is well," said Bourne to me, as I turned away. Poor Bourne! He drove on alone in his wagon. -

But I made haste to the most solitary point upon the southern shore, and there sat, glad to be so near the sea. There was that warm, sympathetic silence in the air, that gives to Indian-summer days almost a human tenderness of feeling. A delicate haze, that seemed only the kindly air made visible, hung over the sea. The water lapped languidly among the rocks, and the voices of children in a boat beyond, rang musically, and gradually receded, until they were lost in the distance.

It was some time before I was aware of the outline of a large ship, drawn vaguely upon the mist, which I supposed, at first, to be only a kind of mirage. But the more steadfastly I gazed, the more distinct it became, and I could no longer doubt that I saw a stately ship lying at anchor, not more than half a mile from the land.
"It is an extraordinary place to anchor," I said to myself, "or can she be ashore?"

There were no signs of distress; the sails were carefully clewed up, and there were no sailors in the tops, nor upon the shrouds. A flag, of which I could not see the device or the nation, hung heavily at the stern, and looked as if it had fallen asleep. My curi-
osity began to be singularly excited. The form of the vessel seemed not to be permanent; but within a quarter of an hour, I was sure that I had seen half a dozen different ships. As I gazed, I saw no more sails nor masts, but a long range of oars, flashing like a golden fringe, or straight and stiff, like the legs of a sea-monster.
"It is some bloated crab, or lobster, magnified by the mist," I said to myself, complacently.

But, at the same moment, there was a concentrated flashing and blazing in one spot among the rigging, and it was as if I saw a beatified ram, or, more truly, a sheep-skin, splendid as the hair of Berenice.
"Is that the golden fleece?" I thought. "But, surely, Jason and the Argonauts have gone home long since. Do people go on gold-fleecing expeditions now?" I asked myself, in perplexity. "Can this be a California steamer?"

How could I have thought it a steamer? Did I not see those sails, "thin and sere"? Did I not feel the melancholy of that solitary bark? It had a mystic aura; a boreal brilliancy shimmered in its wake, for it was drifting seaward. A strange fear curdled along my veins. That summer sun shone cool. The weary, battered ship was gashed, as if gnawed by ice. There was terror in the air, as a "skinny hand so brown" waved to me from the deck. I lay as one bewitched. The hand of the ancient mariner seemed to be reaching for me, like the hand of death.

Death? Why, as I was inly praying Prue's forgiveness for my solitary ramble and consequent de-
mise, a glance like the fulness of summer splendor gushed over me; the odor of flowers and of eastern gums made all the atmosphere. I breathed the orient, and lay drunk with balm, while that strange ship, a golden galley now, with glittering draperies festooned with flowers, paced to the measured beat of oars along the calm, and Cleopatra smiled alluringly from the great pageant's heart.
Was this a barge for summer waters, this peculiar ship I saw? It had a ruined dignity, a cumbrous grandeur, although its masts were shattered, and its sails rent. It hung preternaturally still upon the sea, as if tormented and exhausted by long driving and drifting. I saw no sailors, but a great Spanish ensign floated over, and waved, a funereal plume. I knew it then. The armada was long since scattered; but, floating far
on desolate rainy seas,
lost for centuries, and again restored to sight, here lay one of the fated ships of Spain. The huge galleon seemed to fill all the air, built up against the sky, like the gilded ships of Claude Lorraine against the sunset.
But it fled, for now a black flag fluttered at the mast-head - a long low vessel darted swiftly where the vast ship lay; there came a shrill piping whistle, the clash of cutlasses, fierce ringing oaths, sharp pistol cracks, the thunder of command, and over all the gusty yell of a demoniac chorus,

My name was Robert Kidd, when I sailed.

- There were no clouds longer, but under a serene sky I saw a bark moving with festal pomp, thronged with grave senators in flowing robes, and one with
ducal bonnet in the midst, holding a ring. The smooth bark swam upon a sea like that of southern latitudes. I saw the Bucentoro and the nuptials of Venice and the Adriatic.

Who were those coming over the side? Who crowded the boats, and sprang into the water, men in old Spanish armor, with plumes and swords, and bearing a glittering cross? Who was he standing upon the deck with folded arms and gazing towards the shore, as lovers on their mistresses and martyrs upon heaven? Over what distant and tumultuous seas had this small craft escaped from other centuries and distant shores? What sounds of foreign hymns, forgotten now, were these, and what solemnity of debarkation? Was this grave form Columbus?

## REMARKS

This passage from Prue and I, by George William Curtis, was chosen for transcription because it calls for a considerable range of styles, from familiar colloquial to a formal poetic and rhetorical style. It is transcribed into what seem to the author the least questionable forms of standard speech, that is, the forms least limited by geographical or other considerations. It is not to be taken therefore as a record of the author's individual pronunciation, but of what in his judgment is as satisfactory a representation as can be made of an accepted general standard in American speech. The author's native speech is that of Southern Ohio, though for the past twenty years he has been a resident of New York City, and it is of course quite likely that his observations have been, in some degree, colored by his early habits of speech.
[det-dri:mz]. The diphthongal quality in [der-] is not strongly marked, but sufficiently so to justify recording it, and so generally in final position and also before voiced consonants, e.g., [derz], 1. 12, [seIz], 1. 23, etc.

1. 2. [bom]. The name might also be pronounced ['bu:m], ['bu:am].
['pæsiz]. Some speakers might say ['pæsэz], and so generally with final unstressed syllables in -es, -ed.
['haspitabli]. Or ['hospitabli], but not with the stress on the second syllable. This variation between [a] and [0] occurs in a number of other words.
1. 3. [æskt]. Or [a:skt], [a:skt].
1. 5. ['pakrts]. Or ['pokrts]. Is ['pakats] permissible?
1. 6. [Mes]. The vowel in where, there, when these are slightly stressed words, should be transcribed as short, [Mex], [ [ex].
1. 7. [ mm ]. More formally, [him].
['ænkโəs]. Better than ['ænऽวs].
1. 13. [som'tarmz]. The word might also be pronounced ['sam'taimz].
l. 15. [nd bi'said], etc. Informal conversational style.
1. 19. ['wrorr]. Or ['wirri], though less commonly.
1. 22. ['wonderd]. Or ['wandexd].
1. 23. [fi:ldz]. Less correctly, [fi:lz].
1. 24 . [ænd fel], etc. This clause is transcribed in slow and formal style. The sentence immediately following is again brisker and more informal.
2. 30. [me d]. The vowel is half-long or short here, because so slightly stressed.
1. 54. ['vesl]. Sometimes pronounced ['vesel] or ['vesel], but not in standard speech.
1. 62. [bat]. Usually unemphatic, [bat], but stressed here.
1. 64. [waz]. Somewhat emphatic here.
1. 72. ['siaz]. Perhaps also ['sies].
['melon'kalr]. Or ['melon'kolr]; so also solitary, 1. 73, ['salr'teri] or ['solr'terr].
1. 86. ['orr'ent]. Or ['orr'ent]. Less formally, ['oriənt].
1. 92. [waz]. Unstressed, but formal because of its important position in the sentence.
1. 98. [nju:]. Often pronounced [nu:].
1. 113. [pomp]. Or [pamp], but in this word [o] is more general than [a].
1. 114. ['sene'tosz]. Formal pronunciation.
l. 124. ['ma:stiuz]. Less formally, ['ma:atedz]; so also ['distənt],


## II

## бə＇10ทŋ әv ə mæn әv＇sarəns

mar farst step，ov kors，waz to farnd＇sjutabl ə＇pautmənts．Xiiz aI əb＇teund，＇æftəa ə＇kıpl әv deuz səatS，in fors ${ }^{\prime}$＇ævənju；ə＇veri＇pritr＇sekənd－＇flos un－ ＇famift，kən＇temiŋ＇sitin－＇ru：m，＇bed－＇ru：m，ænd a ＇vælju to mit．It te：ks＇jiə．．Iz әv＇proktis to no：hau to ju：z ә＇kamplr＇ke＇tid＇markro＇sko•p．خı ap＇trjon lukt sas＇prjaslr æt mi æz ar metd خiiz＇horl－serl＇pattSisaz． hi＇evidəntli wəz an＇səatn＇meঠəə to set mi daun æz sım＇saiən＇tifik se＇lgbriti ox ә＇mæd＇mæn．ai $\theta$ ink hi ＇smotlə⿰ ə＇pastmənt mitS ar m＇tendid to fit $\Lambda \mathrm{p}$ æz ə ＇læbərə＇tori．ai＇faxist mar＇ladzrinz＇simpli，bat ＇ræðəェ＇elagəntlı，ænd ðen dr＇vortid oul mar＇enə⿰d3iz
 ＇vizitid park，סə＇selə＇bre•tid ap＇tijən，ænd pæst in ri＇vju：hiz＇splendid kə＇lekjən əv＇markro＇sko＇ps，－ filldz＇kam＇paund，＇hinəmz，＇spensarz，næ＇Serz＇bar－
 ＇korp），ænd æt leyk $\theta$ frkst $\rho^{\prime}$ pon $\begin{gathered}\text { æot form nom } æ z ~\end{gathered}$ ＇spensəaz＇tranjən＇markro＇sko p，æz kəm＇bainip бə ＇greitist＇nımbas әv im＇pruivmənts wro n＇ol＇mo＇st ＇posfikt＇frisdəm fram＇tremə．ə＇loŋ wiot סis ai＇pəx－ t5ist＇evri＇pasibl æk＇sesərı，—＇droı－＇tjuibz，＇mar＇kram－ ətəaz，ə＇kaməra－＇lusida，＇lisvar－＇steid3，＇ækro＇mæ－ tik kən＇denseaz，mait klaud r＇luimi＇ne－teaz，prizmz， ＇pærə＇balik kən＇densəaz，＇porlЭ＇raiziy æpa＇rattes，＇forx－ seps，ə＇kwatik＇baksəz，＇frjm－＇tju：bz，wið ə ho：st әv
 hændz əv n iks＇prriənst mar＇kraskopist，bat，æz ai
 ’＇ $\mathrm{m}^{\prime}$＇klarnd to $\mathrm{\gamma}_{\mathrm{o}}$＇lætəェ br＇lisf．aI so＇porz aI waz mæd．
'evri grett 'dji:njas iz mæd ə'pon бə 'sabdjekt in $^{2}$ mit hi iz 'greitist. סI 'Ansok'sesfəl 'mæd'mæn Iz dis'gre:st ænd ko:ld ə 'lunətrk.
mæd as nat, ar set mar'self to woik wiठ a zi:l mats 'fjuri əv mai æm'bi〔ən, satf $\delta r$ ' $\Lambda n$ 'tairin poisi'virəns әv mai iks'perimənts, $\delta æ t$, 'drfikəlt əv 'kredit æz it
 ænd 'præktikəlı æn ${ }^{\prime}$ kamplrft mar'kraskopist.
'djurm סis 'piriəd əv mar 'lesborz, in mits ar sab'mitid 'spesimənz əv 'evri 'sıbstəns $\varnothing æ t \mathrm{ke} \cdot \mathrm{m}$ '^ndə. mai 'absəi'verfon to $\gamma_{1}$ 'ækjən əv mai 'lenziz, ai bi'kerm ə dis'kavərəı, - in a sməal wer, it iz trus, foa
 dis'troId 'erənbəagz 'өiori бæt бə 'volvoks glo'baitor waz æn 'æniməl, ænd pru:vd $\grave{x t ~ h i z ~ " ' m o: n æ d z " ~}$ wrð 'stıməks nd aiz wəぇ 'muls 'feizəz əv бә fox'merSən əv a 'vedzətəbl sel, ænd wə., men రe• ristft $\delta \varepsilon I$ mə'tjus stert, in'kerpəbl əv סi ækt əv 'kandzu'gerfən,
ax 'enI trui 'dzens're-tiv ækt, wro'aut mits not 'oxganizm raizII tu eni steidz əv laif haiad dən vedzətabl kæn br sed to bi kam'plist. it waz ar hu rízalvd бə 'singjula. 'prabləm əv ro'te:fən in $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ selz ænd heisz әv plænts 'intu 'silr'eri a'træk ${ }^{2}$ an, in spart əv $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{I}}$
 eksplə'ne! $\int ə n$ waz ðə rízult əv ən 'aptikl r'luızən.

## The Longing of a Man of Science

My first step of course was to find suitable apartments. These I obtained, after a couple of days' search, in Fourth Avenue; a very pretty second-floor unfurnished, containing sitting-room, bed-room, and a smaller apartment which I intended to fit up as a laboratory. I furnished my lodgings simply, but rather elegantly, and then devoted all my energies to the adornment of the temple of my worship. I visited Pike, the celebrated optician, and passed in review his splendid collection of microscopes, Field's Compound, Hingham's, Spencer's, Nachet's Binocular (that founded on the principles of the stereoscope), and at length fixed upon that form known as Spencer's Trunnion Microscope, as combining the greatest number of improvements with an almost perfect freedom from tremor. Along with this I purchased every possible accessory, - drawtubes, micrometers, a camera-lucida, lever-stage, achromatic condensers, white cloud illuminators, prisms, parabolic condensers, polarizing apparatus, forceps, aquatic boxes, fishing-tubes, with a host of other articles, all of which would have been useful in the hands of an experienced microscopist, but, as I
afterwards discovered, were not of the slightest present value to me. It takes years of practice to know how to use a complicated microscope. The optician looked suspiciously at me as I made these whole-sale purchases. He evidently was uncertain whether to set me down as some scientific celebrity or a madman. I think he inclined to the latter belief. I suppose I was mad. Every great genius is mad upon the subject in which he is greatest. The unsuccessful madman is disgraced and called a lunatic.
Mad or not, I set myself to work with a zeal which few scientific students have ever equaled. I had everything to learn relative to the delicate study upon which I had embarked, - a study involving the most earnest patience, the most rigid analytic powers, the steadiest hand, the most untiring eye, the most refined and subtile manipulation.
For a long time half my apparatus lay inactively on the shelves of my laboratory, which was now most amply furnished with every possible contrivance for facilitating my investigations. The fact was that I did not know how to use some of my scientific implements, - never having been taught microscopics, and those whose use I understood theoretically were of little avail, until by practice I could attain the necessary delicacy of handling. Still, such was the fury of my ambition, such the untiring perseverance of my experiments, that, difficult of credit as it may be, in the course of one year I became theoretically and practically an accomplished microscopist.

During this period of my labors, in which I submitted specimens of every substance that came under my observation to the action of my lenses, I became
a discoverer, - in a small way, it is true, for I was very young, but still a discoverer. It was I who destroyed Ehrenberg's theory that the Volvox globator was an animal, and proved that his "monads" with stomachs and eyes were merely phases of the formation of a vegetable cell, and were, when they reached their mature state, incapable of the act of conjugation, or any true generative act, without which no organism rising to any stage of life higher than vegetable can be said to be complete. It was I who resolved the singular problem of rotation in the cells and hairs of plants into ciliary attraction, in spite of the assertions of Mr. Wenham and others, that my explanation was the result of an optical illusion.

## REMARKS

These paragraphs are from The Diamond Lens by Fitz-James O'Brien. The transcription represents the author's conception of a standard reading pronunciation, more formal than a colloquial but less formal than an oratorical style.

1. 2. ['sjutəbl]. But ['sutəbl] is also possible.
1. 5. [rn'tendid]. The final syllable, in this and similar words, is quite as likely to be [-od] as [-Id].
1. 9. [pæst]. Or [pa:st]. The pronunciation [past] is likely to be noticeable. Neither [pa:st] nor [pa:st] are natural to the author, whose native speech was formed in Southern Ohio.
1. 13. [lenk $\theta$ ]. Or [len $\theta$ ].
1. 16. ['tremar]. Rarely ['trimar].
1. 18. ['ækro'mætik]. For emphasis on the etymological elements of the word, one might say ['eikro'mætik].
1. 20. [æрə'ra:təs]. Or [æpə're:təs], searcely [æpa'rætəs], though this pronunciation is common popularly and is sometimes heard among physicists and other scientists.
1. 21. [ $0^{\prime}$ kwatik]. Or [ $\sigma^{\prime}$ kwotik].
1. 26. [ $\left.\alpha p^{\prime} t r \int \partial n\right]$. Of course [ $\left.o p^{\prime} t r \int \partial n\right]$ is also possible, but in this
and other words where a choice between the two is open, the form with [a] is much the more general, and represents the author's habit.
1. 28. ['evidentli]. Or ['evi'dentli].
1. 30. [waz]. An emphatic form of unemphatic [waz].
1. 31. ['ssabdjekt]. Or ['sabdjıkt].
1. 32. [ $\overline{\mathrm{r}} \mathrm{I}$ ]. Before a vowel, [ $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{z}}$ ] before consonants.
['Ansok'sesfol]. Or ['Ansok'sesfol].
1. 34. [or]. In rapid reading more likely to be [ar] than [ox]. So also [ænd] may frequently be merely [nd].
1. 36. ['delrkit]. The pronunciation ['deləkət] seems scarcely permissible.
1. 37. [ Im 'ba:skt]. Or [em'ba:ıkt].
1. 39. ['sn'tarrip]. Or [ən'tarrin].
1. 41. [hæf]. Or [haif].
1. 52. [br'ke:m]. The vowel is distinctly long here before a slight pause.
1. 54. ['djurin]. In British English a glide vowel before [r] is prominent, giving ['djuərin], ['pirriəd], 1. 61 ['miallr], etc., but in American speech this glide vowel is very slight when heard and usually is not heard at all.
1. 62. [wou]. Stressed here, but usually unstressed.
1. 66. [br], [bi]. The second be is more emphatic, hence the vowel is higher and tenser. The second syllable of complete is still more emphatic.

## III

## бә 'hormit

wın nart, a 'bjutrfal 'kliax 'frostr nart, hi kerm bæk to hiz sel, 'æfter ə §oart rest. ઈə stausz was 'wandaufal. 'hevn simm ə ' $\theta$ auzənd tarmz 'lausdzar $\partial z$ wel $\partial z$ 'brai-
 5 wan .
 du: kraimz bai nart; ænd '^ðəaz skeus les mæd, hu
 wan, mits 'nartli, to orl aiz nat 'blamdid bar 'kastom,
 mit."
ænd in סis muid hi kerm to hiz sel dors.
hi poizd æt it; it woz klo:zd.
"maI, mi'tort ar left it 'orpn," sed hi. "бә wind.
15 Әәı iz nat ə bre日 әv wind. sat minn 才is?"
hi stud wið iz hænd $\partial$ 'pon $\partial^{\prime}$ 'rıgid doss. hi lukt
 'plessiz ðæn бI 'æpartјax it pri'tendid to kloiz, ænd sot hiz 'Irtl orl wik 'bomin dyast mear hi hæd left it.
20 "hav iz it wro mi," hi sard, "men ar stant n 'trembl
 'æftea mi to dis'texb mar 'hæpi soul. 'retro so' $\theta$ aınas!"
ænd hi 'entə.d hiz keiv 'ræpidlı, nd br'gæn wio 'sammat 'nərvəs ekspi'dijon to lait wan әv hiz 'la:sdz25 ist 'terpozz. mall hi wəz 'lartm it, סex wəz a soft sai in бә kerv. $^{2}$
hi 'sta:atid nd drapt $\gamma_{ə}$ 'kændl d3^st əz It wəz 'laItin, ænd It went aut.
hi stupt fox it 'hariədlı nd 'lartid it, 'Irsnin m30 'tentli. men it waz 'lartid hi 'Seidid It wio iz hænd

 'broikn.

 wəz ठे $^{\prime}$ 'figjuı əv ə 'wumən.

It waz 'masigrit brænt.

## The Hermit

One night, a beautiful clear frosty night, he came back to his cell, after a short rest. The stars were
wonderful. Heaven seemed a thousand times larger as well as brighter than earth, and to look with a thousand eyes instead of one.
"Oh, wonderful," he cried, "that there should be men who do crimes by night; and others scarce less mad, who live for this little world, and not for that great and glorious one, which nightly, to all eyes not blinded by custom, reveals its glowing glories. Thank God I am a hermit."

And in this mood he came to his cell door.
He paused at it; it was closed.
"Why, methought I left it open," said he. "The wind. There is not a breath of wind. What means this?"

He stood with his hand upon the rugged door. He looked through one of the great chinks, for it was much smaller in places than the aperture it pretended to close, and saw his little oil wick burning just where he had left it.
"How is it with me," he sighed, "when I start and tremble at nothing? Either I did shut it, or the fiend hath shut it after me to disturb my happy soul. Retro Sathanas!"

And he entered his cave rapidly, and began with somewhat nervous expedition to light one of his largest tapers. While he was lighting it, there was a soft sigh in the cave.

He started and dropped the candle just as it was lighting, and it went out.

He stooped for it hurriedly and lighted it, listening intently. When it was lighted he shaded it with his hand from behind, and threw the faint light all round the cell.

In the farthest corner the outline of the wall seemed broken.

He took a step towards the place with his heart beating.

The candle at the same time getting brighter, he saw it was the figure of a woman.
Another step with his knees knocking together.
It was Margaret Brandt.

## REMARKS

From Cap. XCV of Charles Reade's The Cloister and the Hearth.

1. 2. [wan nart]. Two distinct [n] consonants are not pronounced here, see above, § 83.
l. 10. [ar æm]. Less formally, [aim].
1. 17. [ $\theta \mathrm{ru}]$. The word is very slightly stressed, hence the vowel is short.
[gre:t]. As an intensive, great is not usually a very emphatic word. Here it is lightly stressed and the vowel is perhaps only half-long.
1. 18. ['ple:siz]. Or ['ple:sez]?
1. 38. ['ma:Igrit]. This word would be trisyllabic only in a formal spelling-pronunciation.

## IV

бə 'luk-'aut
"ðعis §i blouz," wəz saŋ aut frəm бə 'mæst-'hed.
"meıs ə'wer?" di'mændid $\partial \quad$ 'kæptn.
" $\theta$ ri! ponts of סə lit bau, so.."
"reaz лр јәл мill. 'stei'du!""
5
"'stedi, sa.."
"'mæst-'hed ə'hər! djə si: ઈæt merl nav?"
 סe!a Si 'brittSaz!"
"sip aut! sin aut $\varepsilon$ vri taim!"
 blouz - bouz - bo:vz!"
"hav fass of?"
"tu mailz nd ə hæf."
"' $\theta$ andr n 'lartnin! so 'niə!! ko:l oal hændz!"

## The Look-out

"There she blows," was sung out from the mast-head.
"Where away?" demanded the captain.
"Three points off the lee bow, sir."
"Raise up your wheel. Steady!"
"Steady, sir."
"Mast-head ahoy! Do you see that whale now?"
"Ay, ay, sir! A shoal of Sperm Whales! There she blows! There she breaches!"
"Sing out! sing out every time!"
"Ay, ay, sir! There she blows! there - there thar she blows - bowes - bo-o-o-s!"
"How far off?"
"Two miles and a half."
"Thunder and lightning! So near! Call all hands!"

## REMARKS

From Extracts at the end of Melville's Moby Dick. Note the prolonged quality of some of the vowels, resulting of course from the manner of speech exemplified by the passage. In line 6, [djo] might be transcribed [dzo].

## V <br> $\delta$ fi:st

ænd strl Si slept m 'æ弓ə.-'lidıd slisp, in 'blænt5id 'linnn, smu:ð, ænd 'lævən'dəュd,
 av 'kæn'did 'æpəl, kwins, ænd plım, ænd 'gvard;
 ænd 'Ijuisent 'sirops, tigkt wit 'sinə'mon; 'mænə ænd dests, m 'aurgo'si træns'fərd fram fez; ænd 'sparsid 'de:ntiz, 'evri wan, fram 'silkən 'sæmər'kænd tu 'sidəad 'leba'nən.

Xizz 'deli'kerts hi hispt wit 'gloun hænd on 'go:ldm 'drjiz ænd m 'ba:skits brait av 'writðid 'silver: 'samptSu'ss סe• stænd
 'firlng $\partial \boldsymbol{}$ 'tSilı ru:m wit 'parfjum lart. "ænd nav, mar lav, mai 'seræf 'fe:ər, ə'wetk! ðau art mar 'hevn, ænd ar סain 'eri'mart: 'orpn סain aiz, fox mitk se•nt 'ægnis setk, oa ar §æl drauz bi'sard ðiı, sou mar soul d $\wedge \theta$ erk."

## The Feast

And still she slept in azure-lidded sleep, In blanched linen, smooth, and lavender'd, While he from forth the closet brought a heap Of candied apple, quince, and plum, and gourd; With jellies soother than the creamy curd, And lucent syrops, tinct with cinnamon; Manna and dates, in argosy transferr'd From Fez ; and spiced dainties, every one, From silken Samarcand to cedar'd Lebanon.

These delicates he heap'd with glowing hand
On golden dishes and in baskets bright
Of wreathed silver: sumptuous they stand

In the retired quiet of the night, Filling the chilly room with perfume light. "And now, my love, my seraph fair, awake!
Thou art my heaven, and I thine eremite:
Open thine eyes, for meek St. Agnes' sake, Or I shall drowse beside thee, so my soul doth ache."

## REMARKS

These two stanzas from The Eve of St. Agnes, by Keats, are transcribed into a text for very formal and somewhat artificial pronunciation, such as one would employ in a slow recitation of the lines.

1. 2. ['æzəェ-]. Or ['eІzəே-].
1. 4. ['guard]. The word is a poor rime to lavender'd, curd, transferr'd, unless one adopts an artificial pronunciation, [gadd], for the sake of the rime. Normally the word is pronounced ['goard] or [goad].
1. 6. ['lju :sent 'sirəps]. In colloquial style, ['lu isont 'srrəps].
1. 8. [wan]. Should one pronounce [won] for the rime, or ['sino'man], ['lebo'nan], or be satisfied merely with the approximate eyerime in the spellings cinnamon, one, Lebanon?
1. 11. ['ba:skrts]. Or ['ba:skits], ['bæskits], though one would not likely hear ['bæskits] from a professional elocutionist.
1. 12. ['samptSu'as]. In colloquial style, ['samptSues].

## VI <br> rmos'tælitr

sou wi dz^dz әv бə ho!p əv iməa'tæliti. It br'loŋz wro ənd fits 'intu ə 'straktfəa; it iz бæt wið'avt mits

 5 nat jet trus til 'evri stom fits 'intu pless. put $\delta ə$ hoıp әv imos'tæliti 'intu $\delta ə$ kraun əv $\delta$ ' 'væljuz əv laif, ənd


 ıо 'moəu мen Әə 'straktfəa iz 'fmist. ri'fjuz 'jvar 'ki:'stom $\delta ə$ pless foa mits rt simz to bl 'fitid $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ 'zæktli, ænd ju hæv put 'evri 'prefos 'vælju æt risk. ju əu nat so 'Suar əv ə gud gad 'eni 'lopga.. 'hjumən laif iz no 'longar so sig'nfikənt əz it wəz br'foə.. ju həv lost 15 wait aut ev lav ənd 'frendjip, ənd 'leveld סem torad бə dıst. ju həv ri'dust 'pe-triətizm ənd fil'æn日rəpi to 'far'nart 'væljuz, itts wiot its prais. ju hev te $\cdot \mathrm{kn}$ 'burjant djor ənd en'euzræzm aut əv onl ma'tua menz lasf, ənd 'өretnd $\delta \varepsilon m$ wiot ən 'əuliəs oild e:dz. ju həv 20 'Seikn $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ 'betsəz əv mo'ræliti ənd put 'rartโəsnəs 'intu tarmz әv 'kımfət ənd 'palisi. ju həv 'bidn $\mathrm{\gamma I}_{\mathrm{I}}$ 'a:tist,
 $\chi_{\text {eI }}$ va'liditi. ju həv dis'tinktli 'Serkn mænz fe: $\theta$ m 'ladzik ənd 'rizzən, ənd brott oul intə'lektSual 'prasosəz 25 'mutu dis'kredit. for orl סət 'lad3Ik iz 'for iz to baind $\theta_{\mathrm{II} z}$ 'intu ko'hirəns and 'juniti. orl 'væljuz, in fækt,



 mæn kæn hoat ond mai hiz oun laif bar hiz dis'trast, bət hi kən ma! nou ri'ælitr. no mænz daot kən me:k 'dzastis, 'bjuti, truit, lav, les סən 'riol. Xiiz $\theta \mathrm{m} \mathrm{mz}$ a m'gre:nd in a 'nertfo. wi nitd 'omli to trast 才em.

 әv imos'tæliti iz 'simplı бə 'kir'stom, mit5 'olwez stændz fasst, br'jond 'enı mænz daणt, æt $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { kraun әv }\end{aligned}$ $\chi_{\partial}$ 'straktโə. it fits its kəm'pænjən 'væljuz, ənd $\mathrm{\chi e}^{-}$

bid as trast auə larvz ə'pon $\chi_{\mathrm{I}}$ 'att ${ }^{\prime}$ 'wer, artS 'evri 'vælju in бә 'juni'vass hæz dzomd to kən'strakt. wis did nat bild $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ 'bjutifal 'straktfar: wi 'omin faund it.
> mat iz 'eksələnt, æz gad livz, iz 'pa:mənənt.

## Immortality

So we judge of the hope of immortality. It belongs with and fits into a structure; it is that without which you can never make the beauty or unity last, without which also the structure tends to fall apart. The arch is not yet true till every stone fits into place. Put the hope of immortality into the crown of the values of life, and they cohere, and all of them take on new significance. Each stone built into the structure is worth more than it is worth by itself in the field. Each stone is worth still more when the structure is finished. Refuse your keystone the place for which it seems to be fitted exactly, and you have put every precious value at risk. You are not so sure of a good God any longer. Human life is no longer so significant'as it was before. You have lost worth out of love and friendship, and leveled them toward the dust. You have reduced patriotism and philanthropy to finite values, each with its price. You have taken buoyant joy and enthusiasm out of all mature men's life, and threatened them with an earlier old age. You have shaken the bases of morality and put righteousness into terms of comfort and policy. You have bidden the artist, the poet, and the prophet laugh at their visions and doubt their validity. You have distinctly shaken man's faith in logic and reason, and brought all intellectual
processes into discredit. For all that logic is for is to bind things into coherence and unity. All values, in fact, belong in the ideal realm; they go together and make a unity, or else they fall together.

Fall together? No! No man can make the great values fall, or take them apart, or hurt one of them. A man can hurt and mar his own life by his distrust, but he can mar no reality. No man's doubt can make justice, beauty, truth, love, less than real. These things are ingrained in our nature. We need only to trust them. They constitute an infinite order. They validate themselves the more we throw our weight upon them. The hope of immortality is simply the keystone, which always stands fast, beyond any man's doubt, at the crown of the structure. It fits its companion values, and they clasp it with their arms into a serene integrity. They bid us trust our lives upon the archway, which every value in the universe has joined to construct. We did not build the beautiful structure: we only found it.

> What is excellent, As God lives, is permanent.

## REMARKS


#### Abstract

This passage, from Truth and Immortality, an essay by Charles Fletcher Dole, represents the pronunciation of Mr. W. W. Lawrence who was born in Portland, Maine, and spent his early life there. After the usual college training at Bowdoin, and graduate discipline, especially in English and German at Harvard, he spent several years in Kansas, but for the past dozen or fifteen years he has lived in New York, regularly returning, however, for three or four months of each year to his native New England. His pronunciation represents not an extreme local New England speech, but what may be taken as a fair example of cultivated standard New England


speech. Perhaps its most interesting feature is its mixed character. This is evident, for example, in the treatment of [I]. Final unstressed or lightly stressed [ I ] is regularly present, but disappears in a heavily stressed syllable like [fo: $]$ ], 1. 25, or [ma:], 1. 31. Before consonants no [ I ] is present in [ $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ pa:t], l. 30, [ $a: m z$ ], 1. 40, [ $a: t 5-$ ], 1. 41, but is present in [hort], 1. 30, the acoustic test being positively confirmed by the organic analysis. Yet no [ $x$ ] is present in [wa: $\theta$ ], 1. 15, or in ['junr'vass], 1. 42, ['pa:mənənt], 1. 45. In II. 33,34 , the pronunciation [a] for are, our, evidently represents an occasional and unsettled, not a fixed and permanent habit, see $11.36,41$. The loss of [ I ] in ['kamfft], l. 21, is a very wide spread phenomenon, noticeable even in the speech of those who commonly retain [I] before consonants; cf. the pronunciation ['kımftabl] for comfortable.

The pronunciation [la:f], 1. 22, [fa:st], 1. 38, [kla:sp], 1. 40, is consistent for this passage, but Mr. Lawrence declares that in an informal pronunciation, say if he went into a stationery store and asked for paper-clasps, he would say [klæsps]. Further examination showed that in words of this type he sometimes pronounced [a:], sometimes [æ].

The pronunciations ['kansti'tut], 1. 35, [ma'tur], 1. 18, [en'euzuæzm], 1. 18, cannot be taken as indicating a constant preference of [ J$],[\mathrm{u}]$ for [ju] after [ t$]$, [d], etc., for sometimes, especially under full stress, the pronunciation is [ju], as in [nju:], 1. 7.

The diphthongal vowel in [sou], 1. 1, is due to an exceptionally strong stress in this word, and so also in other cases of [ou].

For the vowel of not, God, what, etc., the pronunciation [a] is constant. Observe that for the accented vowel in make, take, patriotism, they, etc., a diphthong was not present, even under strong stress. As to final unstressed syllables, note ['be:saz], 1. 20, ['rartfasnes], 1. 20, etc., beside ['fitid], 1. 11, ['leveld], 1. 15. The mixed character of this pronunciation is not an individual peculiarity but is quite generally characteristic of cultivated American speech.

## VII <br> 'wo:km

 $\mathrm{mm}^{\prime}$ pre§ən, ænd 'sekəndli tu ə sens əv 'pauəa in 'ækjən.
$\chi_{0}$ faist sois əv 'plejəx, 'verriz әv kors wrð auə kən'di-

5 'sekənd wi $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ə'maunt ænd kaind $\mathrm{ov}^{\prime}$ 'pauə, ænd $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{I}}$ ek'stent ænd karnd əv 'ækjən. in əul formz əv 'æktrv 'eksosaiz, סəa a $\theta$ rit 'pauaz 'saimol'te-niəslr in 'ækSən,
 'dami'ne.ts in 'difront kamdz әv 'eksosazz. in 'wo:-

 бI $^{\prime}$ intelekt Iz left kəm'pæritivli frii. бә 'mentl 'plezə.
 'mu:vin ma'Sinəri. . .


 'ma:val סət sat ${ }^{\text {'taini 'blasəmz Sud hæv so 'veri 'hevi }}$ a po'fjum. in 'kalo $\delta \mathrm{e}$ - 'veirid from rits 'arind3 to 20 'pellist 'jelo. wan workt 'weir li fo 'frar əv 'krafin万em 'sndə fut.

## Walking

The pleasure of exercise is due first to a purely physical impression, and secondly to a sense of power in action. The first source of pleasure varies of course with our condition and the state of the surrounding circumstances; the second with the amount and kind of power; and the extent and kind of action. In all forms of active exercise there are three powers simultaneously in action, - the will, the muscles and the intellect. Each of these predominates in different kinds of exercise. In walking, the will and muscles are so accustomed to work together, and perform their task with so little expenditure of force, that the intel-
lect is left comparatively free. The mental pleasure in walking, as such, is in the sense of power over all our moving machinery . . .
Here and there, the field was dotted with small flowers. Wherever you looked, you saw their golden heads nodding in the breeze. They filled the air with their rich odor. It was a marvel that such tiny blossoms should have so very heavy a perfume. In color they varied from rich orange to palest yellow. One walked warily for fear of crushing them under foot.

## REMARKS

Down to the break, this passage is from Holmes' Autocrat. The concluding sentences were made up for the purpose of transcription. The pronunciation is that of Mr. H. W. Wells, who has always lived in New York City, with occasional short periods of residence in New England. Final [ $x$ ] appears in Mr. Wells's pronunciation in unstressed syllables before vowels, and usually, though not always, before pauses. In 1. 5, the two words with the are run together, with only one consonant between them. In 1. 10, are is made very unemphatic, the sound being recorded as [ $[\mathrm{]}$, though it is better described as a weakened form of [a]. Nasalization of vowels is marked in Mr. Wells's pronunciation. In strongly stressed syllables or words like there, 1. 15, air, l. 17, the vowel is [æ:], but not in weak syllables, as in there, 1. 7, their, 11. 16, 17, or in varies, 1. 3, varied, 1. 19, warily, 1. 20. The stress in perfume, 1. 19, as a noun, is usually on the first syllable.

## VIII

## daot

 "'saitnli nat," ə'nsðə 'kwestโən mattSt 'intə mai maind, is'kortəd bai ə 'veri dífarənt "ott."
"ort ar to gou, aen ar hæv satf ə dr'bert ə'baut ət?"

5 bət mail ai wəz pə'plekst, nd 'skafm æt mai oun 'skruplz, ঠə 'feri-'bel 'sadnlı ræŋ, nd 'ænsəd ə:l mar 'kwestjənz. in'valən'terilu aI 'harəd on bəəd. סə bort
 vju: әv סə 'sitr frəm бə ber, bət d3^st əz ai sæt daun, io n ment tu hev sed, "hau 'bjutafəl," ə faund ma'self 'æskin, "ort ai tu hev kam?"
lost in po'pleksin di'bert, ai sot 'litl əv $\mathrm{\delta o}^{\prime}$ 'sinəri əv
 fluəns əv $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{y}}$ 'der 'plındyd mi 'inte ə mutd əv 'pensiv
 $\partial^{\prime}$ raivd ət $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { 'lændıı. }\end{aligned}$

## Doubt

Unfortunately, just as I was triumphantly answering "Certainly not!" another question marched into my mind, escorted by a very defiant ought.
"Ought I to go when I have such a debate about it?"

But while I was perplexed, and scoffing at my own scruples, the ferry-bell suddenly rang, and answered all my questions. Involuntarily I hurried on board. The boat slipped from the dock. I went up on deck to enjoy the view of the city from the bay, but just as I sat down, and meant to have said "how beautiful!" I found myself asking:
"Ought I to have come?"
Lost in perplexing debate, I saw little of the scenery of the bay; but the remembrance of Prue and the gentle influence of the day plunged me into a mood of pensive reverie which nothing tended to destroy, until we suddenly arrived at the landing.

## REMARKS

The passage is from George William Curtis, Prue and I, and the transcription is the reading pronunciation of Mr. George Summey, Jr., a native of Kentucky, of North Carolina parentage, who has lived in South Carolina, Tennessee, and since the age of twentythree in North Carolina. His manner of speech would strike any attentive observer as Southern, but not markedly so. His speech is slow, and more attention is given to unstressed syllables than is customary, though the vowels are not necessarily made clearer.

1. 2. [an'fortfonatli]. There is no trace of a consonant for $\mathbf{r}$ before consonants and finally.
1. 4. [ət]. Very lightly stressed.
1. 5. ['skafin]. The more usual pronunciation is ['skofm].
1. 7. ['harad]. A more common standard pronunciation would be ['harid], or ['harid], the latter to be preferred.
[bood]. The vowel is distinctly short.
[bo:t]. No trace of diphthongal quality, but when final, as in [gov], l. 4, the diphthong is present.
1. 10. ['bjutffel]. In a word like this, if one had a mark for accent indicating a degree between half-stress and unstressed, one would employ it on the second and third syllables to suggest Mr. Summey's pronunciation. More commonly pronounced ['bjutrfal].
1. 12. ['sinari]. The vowel of the first syllable is not usually lowered.
1. 13. [prou]. The diphthong very distinct, perhaps because of the slow tempo.
['mfluəns]. More commonly, ['mflivens].
1. 14. [mu:d]. For common standard [mu:d].

## IX

'əænの'tapsas
tu him hu in סə lav əv 'nertfar hoildz
ka'mjunjən wit hax 'vizibl formz, Si spitks
a 'verrias 'læygwid3; fax iz 'getas 'auarz
SI hæz ә vois əv 'glædnas; nd ə smarl
nd 'elokwons $\partial v$ 'bjuti, nd Si glardz intu hiz 'da:skə. 'mjuzinz, wif ə marld nd 'hiulin 'simpo日r סət stitz ə'weI סex 'Saspnəs, eix hi iz ə'wera. suen Oosts əv бә læst 'bitəa 'auəa kım lark ə blart 'ovəェ ठаı 'spirət, nd sæd 'mardzəz
 nd 'breөles 'dasiknəs, nd бə 'næro haus, meak $\mathrm{Oi}_{\mathrm{i}}$ to 'Sader, nd gro: sik æt hasat; go: for $\boldsymbol{\theta} \theta^{\prime} \Lambda n d ə a$ סI 'oıpn skai, nd list to 'neitSouz 'tistfinz, Mall from osl $\partial^{\prime}$ raund -
 kamz e stil vois.

## Thanatopsis

To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language; for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty, and she glides
Into his darker musings, with a mild
And healing sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness, ere he is aware. When thoughts
Of the last bitter hour come like a blight
Over thy spirit, and sad images
Of the stern agony, and shroud, and pall,
And breathless darkness, and the narrow house,
Make thee to shudder, and grow sick at heart; -
Go forth, under the open sky, and list
To Nature's teachings, while from all around -
Earth and her waters, and the depths of air -
Comes a still voice.

## REMARKS

This passage represents the informal reading pronunciation of Mr. F. L. Mott, a native and resident of Iowa. The only pronunciations which call for comment are [日a:ts], 1. 8, which has been recorded with [0:], but which has a sound between [a:] and [0:]; in 1. 16 ['waterz] has distinctly [a]; in Il. 2,6, with has a voiceless final consonant. For $\mathbf{r}$ final and before consonants the transcription [I] has been used, though perhaps the sound is nearer [r].

## X

## æn 'elə've•təd 'kanver'se:fon

ar wəz 'gorin daun taun on $\delta_{I}$ ' $\varepsilon l ə$ 've•təd бis ' $^{\prime} æ f t ə r-$ 'nu:n nd pæst $\delta$ ə taim bai 'lisnin to $\begin{array}{r} \\ \text { 'kanvər'seifən }\end{array}$ əv ә 'nımbər əv 'sku:l-'gərlz. ઈə• wər frəm wan əv бә 'siti 'hai-'sku:lz, $n$ wər drest laik $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime}$ 'dostorz əv 5 'wel-tə-'du: 'perrənts. ठe• wər o:l 'veri mıtS $\mathrm{Ik}^{\prime}$ sartəd 'ovər n Igzæmi'neifon in 'mglif 'litərə'tfur mits əd bin

 ţənz. "o gərlz," Sr sed, "ai want ə nou ə'baut סoiz so oudz. ar no: wan woz bar kists $n$ wan woz bar 'Selr, $n$ ar no: wan wəz ə'baut ə 'skar-'lasrk n wan wəz ə'baut ə 'narton'genl, bət ar dount no: 'meठər ar gat Xəm strest." "мма," 'ænsərd wın әv hər kəm'pænjənz,
 15 ə'baut $\delta ə$ 'skai-laırk." "бعrr nau," mornd $\delta$ gə gərl hu: hæd æskt $\mathrm{O}^{\prime}$ 'kwestSon, "iznt $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{mt}}$ tu: bæd! aI


## An Elevated Conversation

I was going down town on the Elevated this afternoon and passed the time by listening to the conver-
sation of a number of school-girls. They were from one of the city high-schools, and were dressed like the daughters of well-to-do parents. They were all very much excited over an examination in English literature which had been held in the school that morning. One of the girls seemed very much disturbed over the answer to one of the questions. "O girls," she said, "I want to know about these odes. I know one was by Shelley and one was by Keats, and I know one was about a sky-lark and one was about a nightingale, but I don't know whether I get them straight." "Why," answered one of her companions, "Shelley wrotesthe one about the nightingale and Keats the one about the sky-lark." "There now," moaned the girl who had asked the question, "isn't that too bad! I just knew I'd get those boids mixed, and I did."

## REMARKS

This represents the conversational pronunciation of Mr. G. W. Mead, practically all of whose life has been passed in the Middle West. There is no [ I ] in Mr. Mead's pronunciation, except occasionally in unstressed final syllables. In I. 6 ['Ittra't tJur] is a somewhat formal pronunciation for informal ['IrtorətSer]. For want, the transcription is [want], 1. 9, and so it would be generally in this pronunciation for words like watch, water, swan, etc. A rather slow tempo accounts for the diphthongs in [nou], 1. 9, [oudz], 1. 10, both stressed. But [no:], 1. 10, is only relatively lightly stressed. For ['narton'ge:l], 1. 12, ['nartn'ge:l] might have been written. In l. 17 [bordz] is New York dialect for birds.

## XI

## rip væn 'wipkl

$\mathfrak{x z}$ hr waz ə'bæut to di'send, hr haid a vors fram a 'distəns 'hæluin, "rip væn 'wiŋkl! rip væn 'wigkl!"
hi lukt ræund, bat kud sii ' $n \wedge \theta$ In bat a krou, 'wipm its 'sali'teri flart $\rho^{\prime} k r o s \delta^{\prime}$ 'mæuntn. hi 0 ort iz 'fænss 5 mast əv di'siivd mm , nd taind ə'gen to drisend, men

 'brisld ap hiz bæk, nd 'givin a lou 'græull, skalkt to hiz 'mæstəz said, 'lukm 'fiəfli dæun 'into бə glen. ıо rip næu felt ə ve!g æpri'henfon 'stillin 'ovə hrm; hi
 streind 3 'figja 'sloulr 'torlm $\Lambda p$ бə raks, nd 'bendm
 so'praizd to sil 'eni 'hjumən 'birin in סis 'lounls nd $15 \Delta^{n}$ 'frikwentid pleis; bet so'poizin it to bi 'sam'wan әv бә 'nerbə'hud mnid əv hiz ə'sistəns, hi 'heisnd dæun to jiild It.
on 'nirə e'proitS hi wəz stil mot so'praizd æt $\begin{array}{r} \\ \hline\end{array}$ singju'leriti əv бə 'streindzəz ə'prrəns. hi wəz ə 〔ort 20 'skwe--bilt old 'felo, wiot $\theta$ Ik 'bust 'heiə nd ə 'grizld
 'dzə.kn stræpt ræund $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ weist, 'sevrel 'perə əv 'brit§iz, $\chi_{\partial}$ 'æutə wns әv 'æmpl 'valjəm, 'dekə're•tid wro rouz
 25 boir on hiz '乌oildə ə stæut kgg, ðæt simm fal əv 'Irka,

 rip kəm'plaid wrot iz 'juzjal a'lækritr; nd 'mjutSualı ri'livin wan ə'nıбә, бe. 'klæmbəd $\Delta \mathrm{p}$ ә 'næro 'gali,


 'mizaz wiito iz ə gre•t 'lave əv 'mjuzik, nd 'ræili 'evo
'misez ə 'simfənr 'kan'sait. in $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ 'samə §i spendz ə
 hə plænts. Si iz pə'tikjolı fond əv pə'tuınjəz.

## Rip Van Winkle

As he was about to descend, he heard a voice from a distance, hallooing, "Rip Van Winkle! Rip Van Winkle!" He looked round, but could see nothing but a crow winging its solitary flight across the mountain. He thought his fancy must have deceived him, and turned again to descend, when he heard the same cry ring through the still evening air; "Rip Van Winkle! Rip Van Winkle!" - at the same time Wolf bristled up his back, and giving a low growl, skulked to his master's side, looking fearfully down into the glen. Rip now felt a vague apprehension stealing over him; he looked anxiously in the same direction, and perceived a strange figure slowly toiling up the rocks, and bending under the weight of something he carried on his back. He was surprised to see any human being in this lonely and unfrequented place; but supposing it to be someone of the neighborhood in need of his assistance, he hastened down to yield it.

On nearer approach he was still more surprised at the singularity of the stranger's appearance. He was a short, square-built old fellow, with thick bushy hair, and a grizzled beard. His dress was of the antique Dutch fashion: a cloth jerkin strapped round the waist, several pair of breeches, the outer one of ample volume, decorated with rows of buttons down the sides, and bunches at the knees. He bore on his shoulder a stout keg, that seemed full of liquor, and
made signs for Rip to approach and assist him with the load. Though rather shy and distrustful of this new acquaintance, Rip complied with his usual alacrity; and mutually relieving one another, they clambered up a narrow gully, apparently the dry bed of a mountain torrent.

Yes, that elderly lady is Mrs. Worth. She lives in Charleston. The two girls are her daughters, the Misses Worth. Mrs. Worth is a great lover of music, and rarely ever misses a symphony concert. In the summer she spends a great deal of time in her garden, watering and trimming her plants. She is particularly fond of petunias.

## REMARKS

This passage down to the break represents the slightly formal reading pronunciation of a paragraph or two from Irving's Rip Van Winkle as read by Miss Susan Lewis, a native and always a resident of Texas. After the break come several made-up sentences of somewhat less formal character. The tempo was rather slow, the diphthongal quality of some sounds being thus more marked than ordinarily. For jerkin, l. 22, a somewhat literary and unfamiliar word, we have ['dzarkn], probably as a spelling-pronunciation, since $\mathbf{r}$ is regularly omitted by Miss Lewis before consonants. In final position, $\mathbf{r}$ is also silent, even before words beginning with a vowel, except [bosr], 1. 25, where the [r] is perhaps due to the [0:], see above, $\S 305$. In the concluding passage, compare the pronunciation of Mrs., Misses and misses, and for Mrs., see above, § 320. As Miss Lewis pronounces Mrs., the word is almost a monosyllable with a long final consonant. For rarely, 1. 33, perhaps the transcription should be ['ræ:alr]. The stressing of concert ['kan'sast], 1. 34 , is noteworthy. In general the vowel [ A :] is only slightly tense in Miss Lewis's pronunciation. In 1. 26 [wit 万े $^{2}$ ] is a good example of phonetic differentiation, the voiceless consonant in [wi $\theta$ ] being evidently assumed to keep the word separate from [ $[\mathrm{D} a \mathrm{]}$.

## XII

## 'hæmlits spitf

 'tripigli on бә t tıj; bat if ju maư it, æz 'meni әv jणə 'pleəəz dus, aI hæd æz liif бә taun 'kraiə spork mas
 $5 \delta_{\Delta s,}$ bat juz oal 'dzentli; foar in $\gamma_{\partial}$ 'veri 'torent, 'tempist, ænd æz ar mer ser, $\delta ə$ 'me:l'wind əv 'pæృən, ju
 'smuißnəs. o it ə'fendz mi to $\partial \partial$ soul tu hia ə ro'bustfas 'perriwig-pertəd 'felo teix ə 'pæjon tu 'tætəz,

 'dsm-'Souz ænd norz. aI kud hæv satS a 'felo mipt for 'or'duin 'terməgənt; it 'aut'herədz 'herəd; prei ju $a^{\prime}$ vord it.
15 bis nat to term 'nisðəa, bat let juas oun dis'kre§an



 20 ænd nau, woz ænd iz, tu hould, æz twera, $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime}$ 'mirəa
 həa oun 'imidz, ænd $\chi_{\partial}$ 'veri eidz and 'bodi əv бә $^{2}$


 јшәェ ə'lauəns, 'əı'weI ə houl 'өrətəı əv '^ðəz.

## Hamlet's Speech

Speak the speech, I pray you, as I pronounced it to you, trippingly on the tongue; but if you mouth it, as
many of your players do, I had as lief the town-crier spoke my lines. Nor do not saw the air too much with your hand, thus, but use all gently; for in the very torrent, tempest, and, as I may say, the whirlwind of passion, you must acquire and beget a temperance that may give it smoothness. 0 , it offends me to the soul to hear a robustious periwig-pated fellow tear a passion' to tatters, to very rags, to split the ears of the groundlings, who for the most part are capable of nothing but inexplicable dumb-shows and noise. I would have such a fellow whipped for o'erdoing Termagant; it outherods Herod; pray you, avoid it.

Be not too tame neither, but let your own discretion be your tutor; suit the action to the word, the word to the action; with this special observance, that you o'erstep not the modesty of nature; for anything so overdone is from the purpose of playing, whose end, both at first and now, was and is, to hold, as 't were, the mirror up to nature; to show virtue her own feature, scorn her own image, and the very age and body of the time his form and pressure. Now this overdone, or come tardy off, though it make the unskilful laugh, cannot but make the judicious grieve; the censure of the which one must in your allowance o'erweigh a whole theater of others.

## REMARKS

The transcription of this passage from Hamlet, Act III,'Scene II, represents the pronunciation of Miss Theodora Ursula Irvine, a professional teacher of public speaking, who has given particular attention to training students for the stage. The passage is not rendered in a highly formal, dramatic style, but as the sense of it, would seem to demand, in what might be called a formal natural
style. The tempo is somewhat slower than conversation, and some sounds are given clearer and different values than they would have in familiar style. Long [e] and [o] are more diphthongal than they customarily are in American speech.

1. 2. [joə]. A final [ I ] is distinctly present when the succeeding word begins with a vowel, or in logically prominent words followed by a pause. When final before immediately following words with a consonant, no $\mathbf{r}$ is audible in Miss Irvine's pronunciation, though internally $\mathbf{r}$ before a consonant is sometimes given audible value, sometimes not. This is so slight, however, that it seemed better not to record it in the transcription. Intervocalic $r$ is commonly trilled by Miss Irvine, though not strongly, but r after a consonant, as in ['tripınli], 1. 2, is not trilled. The most notable feature of Miss Irvine's pronuhciation is the value given to vowels e, $\mathbf{i}$ in stressed syllables before $r$ followed by a consonant. This has been transcribed as [e:], as in ll. 6, 13, 16, 19, 21. The symbol is not adequate, however, since the sound is not the same as the vowel of there, where, etc., but may be described as a mid front tense neutral vowel, which is kept distinct from both [ $\mathrm{A}:]$ and [已].

Miss Irvine pronounces your as [jva] or [jov] indifferently. Words with 'long 0 ' are not always strongly diphthongal, sometimes not at all, as in [spo:k], l. 3. In l. 8 the exclamation [o] is short and not strongly stressed.

For $o$ in not, 1. 4, modesty, 1. 18, body, 1. 22, etc., Miss Irvine's sound is closer to [0] than to [a].

## XIII

## 'gromp oild

fas 'forti 'jraxz nekst 'i•star der, him n mit in wind n'weరəar həv bin $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{-}$gitn bent n greI 'mogn ə'loŋ tə'geðัə.
wis nat so 'veri ould, əv kosis! bet stil, wi ent so 'offel sprai әz men wi went to 'sipən-'skuil
ə＇fut n kros lats，him n ar－ n workt bæk horm סə＇longast wei－ n бə muin ә－Sainən on бə snou， ＇metkn đə rord $\partial z$ brait $\partial z$ deI n hiz vois＇to：kn lou．
lænd serks！d3est＇hiəュ mi totk－
 mit－nulr＇sikstr！－＇wel－ə－＇wel！ ar waz so tosl n stron， бə kas $^{2}$ in mai＇herə．，sim sed，wəz lark
бә＇krinklz in ə＇medəa bruk， so braun n brait！bat＇סعเa！！
ar ges hi gat ot fram ə buk． hiz tork in $\delta$ em $\begin{gathered}\text { ©is deiz woz ful }\end{gathered}$ əv dzest set ＇nan＇sens－＇do＇ntSu $_{\text {Onk }}$ aI＇didnt lark ət，foa ar did！ ar workt $\theta^{\prime}$ lon $\delta$ ©！a glæd to drimk hzz woadz in laik $\delta$ ə bre日 ə laif－ ＇hevenz n əコ $\theta$ ，mat fu：lz wi＇wimən bis！ n men hi æst mi for Iz waif， aI＇ænsoad＇jes，＇əv ko．ss，jə sit．
n סen knm woak，n＇trabl bit－ nat mats taim fax＇lav＇tork $\delta \varepsilon n$ ！ wi bort $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ fasm n ＇morgidzd it， n workt n sleivd lark orl pa＇sest to lift Oæt＇tərəbl＇graindn west．$^{\text {t }}$
ar wo： 5 n t f oind n soud－
n＇t乌Ildoan kım，tul wi hæd ert
əz 'hænsəm berbz əz 'evəa groud to work ba'sard ə 'msđəaz nit. бe• helpt mi beix it orl, jo sit.
it eint bin 'nıəən els bat skrab
o domt luk 'skeart! ar misn dzest mæt ai ser. ent 'kreizi jet, bat its a'naf to merk mi sou əv koss it ent no jus to fret -



 n aısmz zz raund n stron, n said oz It wəz бen! - ard — ard -
ard du: at ə:l 'ovar ə'gen, lark ə furl,
 n work n 'wari, betbz n arl. ar spozz $\theta$ inz gou bar sam big ruil әv gadz oun buk, bət mar oul bre!n kænt frks әm $\Lambda p$, so arl dzest wert n du: mai duti men its 'klier, n trast to hrm to merk ot strert. ———'gudnes! nu:n iz 'olmo'st 'hias


## Growing Old

F'r forty years next Easter day, Him and $m e$ in wind and weather Have been a-gittin' bent 'n' gray Moggin' along together.

We're not so very old, of course! But still, we ain't so awful spry As when we went to singin'-school ${ }^{-}$ Afoot and 'cross lots, him and I And walked back home the longest way An' the moon a-shinin' on the snow, Makin' the road as bright as day An' his voice talkin' low.

Land sakes! Jest hear me talk F'r all the world, jest like a girl,
Me - nearly sixty! - Well - a - well!
I was so tall and strong, the curl
In my hair, Sim said, was like The crinkles in a medder brook, So brown and bright! but there! I guess he got it from a book.

His talk in them there days was full
Of jest sech nonsense - Don't you think I didn't like it, for I did!
I walked along there, glad to drink
His words in like the breath o' life -
Heavens and earth, what fools we women be! And when he asked me for his wife, I answered 'yes,' of course, $y$ ' see.

And then come work, and trouble bit Not much time for love talk then! We bought a farm and mortgaged it, And worked and slaved like all possessed To lift that turrible grindin' weight.

I washed and churned and sewed An' childurn come, till we had eight As han'some babes as ever growed To walk beside a mother's knee. They helped me bear it all, $y$ ' see.

It ain't been nothin' else but scrub
An' rub and bake and stew
The hull, hull time, over stove or tub -
No time to rest as men folks do. -
I tell yeh, sometimes I sit and think
How nice the grave 'll be, jest
One nice, sweet, everlastin' rest.
O don't look scart! I mean
Jest what I say. Ain't crazy yet,
But its enough to make me so -
Of course it ain't no use to fret -
Who said it was? It's nacherl, though,
But $O$, if I was only there -
In the past, and young once more -
An' had the crinkles in my hair -
An' arms as round and strong, and side
As it was then! - I'd - I'd -
I'd do it all over again, like a fool, I s'pose! I'd take the pain

An' work an' worry, babes and all.
I s'pose things go by some big rule Of God's own book, but my ol' brain
Can't fix 'um up, so I'll just wait
An' do my duty when it's clear,
An' trust to Him to make it straight.
———Goodness! noon is almost here,
And there the men come through the gate!

## REMARKS

From Prairie Songs, by Hamlin Garland, pp. 142-144. The volume was published in 1893, and the poem represents a rustic dialect of the Middle West, specifically Iowa, as spoken by the pioneer settlers. It has now passed out of existence, except for sporadic survivals in country districts which have been only slightly affected by the leveling influences of public school instruction.

In this and the following dialect passages, the author's method has been to transcribe as dialectal only what it seems to have been the intention of the original writers of the passages to indicate by means of spelling as dialectal. Otherwise the passages have been transcribed in familiar colloquial style, appropriate to the general tone of the writings, but not necessarily peculiar to any particular dialect. It should be remembered that writers of dialect literature seldom endeavor to indicate dialect features either exhaustively or systematically. Mr. Garland has made no attempt to indicate different kinds of $r$ in this poem, but $r$ before consonants and finally is usually [ r ] in Iowa speech, both dialect and cultivated, or even at times back r, see § 44.

## XIV 'jænkı spirt

næu IZ סə 'winto əv 'æuə 'diskən'tent




5 næu ๕ə æuə bræuz bæund Ið vik'toriəs rirðz;
 æuә sta:n ə'larəmz 'tJændzd tə'meri 'mistinz, æuә 'drefl 'maitjiz to də'laifl 'me:zəz. 'grim-'vizid3d wot hee 'smju:ठd hiz 'ripkld frant, io n næu, in'stid $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ 'mæuntin 'beəbid sti:dz to frait $\gamma^{2}$ soulz ə 'fs :fl ' $\varepsilon d v \partial^{\prime}$ 'seriz, hi 'keıpəz 'nimlı in ə 'lerdız 'tfæmbə, to סə lə'siviəs 'plizzig əv ə luit.

## Yankee Speech

Neow is the winta uv eour discontent Med glorious summa by this sun o' Yock, $\mathrm{An}^{\prime}$ all the cleouds thet leowered upun eour heouse In the deep buzzum o' the oshin buried;
Neow air eour breows beound 'ith victorious wreaths;
Eour breused arms hung up fer monimunce;
Eour starn alarums changed to merry meetins,
Eour dreffle marches to delighfle masures.
Grim-visaged war heth smeuthed his wrinkled front,
An' neow, instid o' mountin' barebid steeds
To fright the souls o' ferfle edverseries,
He capers nimly in a lady's chămber,
To the lascivious pleasin' uv a loot.
Now is the winter of our discontent
Made glorious summer by this sun of York,
And all the clouds that lour'd upon our house
In the deep bosom of the ocean buried;
Now are our brows bound with victorious wreaths;
Our bruised arms hung up for monuments;
Our stern alarums changed to merry meetings,

Our dreadful marches to delightful measures. Grim-visaged war hath smooth'd his wrinkled front, And now, instead of mounting barbed steeds To fright the souls of fearful adversaries, He capers nimbly in a lady's chamber, To the lascivious pleasing of a lute.

## REMARKS

In the introduction to the First Series of the Biglow Papers, Lowell gave a version of the opening lines of Richard III, using the ordinary spelling to indicate as exactly as he could the pronunciation of the rustic Yankee of his day. Lowell's spelling is given here for the sake of comparison with the phonetic transcription of it which precedes it. The passage represents dialect New England speech of the middle of the last century, but many of the characteristics indicated by Lowell still survive. The author has profited by a phonetic transcription of the passage made by Professor Grandgent, in From Franklin to Lowell, A Century of New England Pronunciation, Publications of the Modern Language Association, Vol. VII (New Series), p. 239 (1899).

After having given a description of New England dialect speech, Lowell adds, "To the dish thus seasoned, add a drawl ad libitum," but he does not try to represent the drawl.

1. 2. [næण]. As the first element in the diphthong, [æ] for [a] is still heard in New England and in certain regions of the South.
1. 3. [ $\left.\partial^{\prime} \mathrm{p} \wedge \mathrm{n}\right]$. Still current dialectally.
1. 6. ['brju:zid]. See also ['smju:ठd], 1. 9. Grandgent, in the article cited above, pp. 224-226, notes a confusion in the use of [u] and [ju] in New England speech which was at its height about 1820 and which affected both polite and dialect speech. As a result a pronunciation [ju] was often transferred to words where it was organically difficult to pronounce, as in ['brju:zId] or where it did not historically belong, as in ['smju:ठठd].
1. 7. [sta:n]. The pronunciation of efollowed by r and a consonant as [a:], which still persists in England, e.g., in clerk [kla:k], Derby ['da:br], etc., is nowhere current in cultivated American speech and has almost if not completely disappeared from the dia-
lects. New England words which are pronounced with [a:] are written with a, as in Marcy from older Mercy, darn, the expletive, from older dern (which of course also persists as [domn, da:n]), tarnal probably from eternal.

## XV

## 'a:xtr ənd 'kloidr

"'meisir æt?" ri'pitəd $\delta ə$ 'mesindzə. bor . . . men hi æskt "'меısiI æt?" hi prə'naunst it "'meisir," ənd in orl hrz 'ssbsikwənt totk, hi gerv $\mathrm{\gamma}_{\partial}$ "s" ə soft ənd 'hisin saund wel prə'loŋd, tu $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime}$ 'evədənt in'dzormənt 5 әv 'austi ənd бә marld 'wandəumənt əv 'miləx.
"mezz hu: æt?" dímændəd 'astr, a'daptin ə fraun

"war, to 'fori-'aid nabz dæt sent mi aut on to saut said."
ı0 "ax ju סə se!m 'litl bor? 'wudnt סæt frost jə, סou,

"or, Mats 'iitn ja?" æskt $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ bai, 'givin ə 'wou'lark

 15 бət 'عva. 'hæpnd. 'matSu bin 'duən orl deI, 'pleæn 'ma!xblz fəx kieps əa 'stændn m frınt ə wan ә бem darm mju'ziamz?"
 to wei to 'fostr-'tri: 'naintr-'tris 'kæləmet 'ævnus. aI 20 'kudnt git bæk no. 'sunə.."
"hu waz it סə nost wəz tuı?"
"hiz ræg, ə ges."
欠is boi a bard! kn jə bist im? kn jo tai m? boi, 25 jox oil rart."


 n æks."
"iz dæt sıou??" æskt ðə bəI, wið ə 'fraitfəl is'ke!p әv " s ," ənd ə 'gleər sat $\mathrm{\partial z}$ hi mast әv ju:zd to 'terı' fai

"if ai wəz əz taf $\partial z$ ju ax, ald bi $\partial$ 'fresd ə mai'self, on $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime}$ 'level." lat ə dem 'fani magz bo'fors dis."
"war, 'klotdi, ar 'wudnt trai to dzo: $\int$ jə. aI $\theta \mathrm{mbk}$ jəェ ə nais, klim bor. 'euntfa 'gona terk of jox glavz?"
'milar liznd bæk in hiz tyess and hauld wit 'læftex.
"ai beg jax 'pasisdn,' klords," kən'tinjud 'asti. "ai
 jəa ə bru'nєt, 'eintSə?"

бə 'mesindzəa bor hæd bin 'sım'мat'terkn ə'bæk bai $\gamma_{1}$ a'luzən tu hiz "glavz," bat hi ri'kavard ənd sed, 45 stil 'geizip æt autr: "sseri, jə.. 'hævn osl kaindz ə fan wit mi, 'e!nt5a? wel, 'wat〔u - 'eni'tID ju sel kats no ass wit mit."

## Artie and Claudie

"Where's he at?" repeated the messenger boy . . . When he asked "Where's he at?" he pronounced it "where 'ce," and in all his subsequent talk he gave the " s " a soft and hissing sound well prolonged, to the evident enjoyment of Artie and the mild wonderment of Miller.
"Where's who at?" demanded Artie, adopting a frown and a harsh manner.
"W'y, t'e four-eyed nobs dat sent me out on t'e Sout' Side."
"Are you the same little boy? Wouldn't that frost you, though, Miller? This is little Bright-eyes that took the note for Hall."
"Aw, what's eatin' you?" asked the boy, giving a warlike curl to the corner of his mouth.
"Oh, ow! listen to that. I'll bet you're the toughest boy that ever happened. What you been doin' all day - playin' marbles for keeps or standin' in front $o$ ' one o' them dime museeums?"
"Aw, say; you t'ink you're fly. Dat young feller sent me all t'e way to forty-t'ree ninety-t'ree Callamet av'noo. I couldn't get back no sooner."
"Who was it the note was to?"
"His rag, I guess."
"Oh-h-h-h! His rag! What do you think o' that, Miller? Ain't this boy a bird! Can you beat him? Can you tie him? Boy, you're all right."
"So are you - dat is, from y'r head up."
"An' the feet down, huh? You're one o' them 'Hully chee, Chonny,' boys, ain't you? You're so tough they couldn't dent you with an axe."
"Is dat so-0-0-o?" asked the boy, with a frightful escape of " s " and a glare such as he must have used to terrify all the smaller boys at the call station.
"If I was as tough as you are I'd be afraid o' myself, on the level."
"You t'ink you're havin' sport wit' me, don't you? I seen a lot o' dem funny mugs before dis."
"W'y, Claudie, I wouldn't try to josh you. I think you're a nice, clean boy. Ain't you goin' to take off your gloves?"

Miller leaned back in his chair and howled with laughter.
"I beg y'r pardon, Claudie," continued Artie. "I thought them was gloves you had on. Gee, is them your mits? You're a brunette, ain't you?"

The messenger boy had been somewhat taken aback by the allusion to his "gloves," but he recovered and said, still gazing at Artie: "S-s-ay, you're havin' all kinds o' fun wit' me, ain't you? Well, w'at you - anyt'ing you say cuts no ice wit' me."

## REMARKS

From Artie, A Story of the Streets and Town, by George Ade, Chicago, 1897. Artie exemplifies a dialect of Chicago as spoken by a free and easy office clerk, the messenger boy a somewhat lower dialect of the streets. The dialect is of course only partially indicated by the author's spellings. In 1. 1, the author records a voiceless [ M$]$ in where, and this has been allowed to stand, and so also in what, 1.12 , though these are probably inadvertencies, the boy's dialect apparently having only [w]. For [æeskt], 1. 2, see above, § 346.

## XVI

## 'tjrm 'fædn

lon tarm sins jo sim mi? sort. 'do-ntjo no: də 'riszn? мaI, aI wəz 'mærid. 'Suə. aI no:d jəd dar men ar to:l jə. jes, it woz də 'datfos; ar ges ja nord dæt. wel, 'lemi tel jə. it wəz da 'koukənəst 'wedn dax
 'prinsipl I'vent a da 'iivnən.
sei, ar 'never. tort dar waz so mats 'flim-'flæm baut 'getn 'redi to bi 'mærid. ai 'niə gat də 'rætlz wanst, n wəz 'gorm to meik də græn sniik; bat ar tuk a bress, xo korz ar waz 'tinkn dæt if ar snu:k, dæt it wud 'kwiəa mis 'fæniz ge:m, n aI 'wudnt 'kwiəx mis 'fæniz ge:m If ar hæd to set $\Lambda p$ ә fjunərel strd $ə$ ә 'wedn.
wel, də fasst fe:k wot 'pærəlaızd mi: wəz də 'dstjas
'seəən dar mast bit wot fir ko:ld ə 'mærrd3 'kantrækt. 15 ser, it waz waus dən 'getn aut ə dzeal on beal. aI ges wiaz 'wudnt bi 'mærid jet, if it woznt fax 'mistəa 'bartn, wots mis 'fæniz 'felr. ii n mis 'fænr, de• woz boit 'nia. 'kreizi baut 'auəa 'wedn, n wəz 'f fisin baut it mosi dən de• iz baut dəa oun.
wel, 'mistas 'bastn, is sent fas mi, n telz mi to kam to iz 't Jermbarz. it sez to mis, sez is, 'tJermz,' i sez, 'kam dis 'iivnən to mi 'tSermborz. ar korlz mi 'paratmənts mi 'tJermberz far dis 'kerzən 'ornlr,' sez is, 'givn mi də wink, 'koiz dis iz a 'liggal 'mætəa, n in ${ }_{25}$ də ten 'jierz arv bin 'mitəd to do basi,' sez it, 'dis iz de forst tarm ai 'evar hæd ə kens.'

## Chimmie Fadden

Long time since ye seen me? Cert. Don't ye know de reason? Why, I was married. Sure. I knowed ye'd die when I tole ye. Yes, it was de Duchess; I guess ye knowed dat. Well, lemme tell ye. It was de corkin'est weddin' dere ever was, wid such mugs as me an' de Duchess doin' de principal event er de evenin'.

Say, I never taut dere was so much flim-flam 'bout gettin' ready to be married. I near got de rattles onct, an' was goin' t' make de gran' sneak; but I took er brace, 'cause I was tinkin' dat if I snook, dat it would queer Miss Fannie's game, an' I wouldn't queer Miss Fannie's game if I had t' set up er funeral 'stid er a weddin'.

Well, de first fake wot paralyzed me was de Duchess sayin' dere must be wot she called er marriage contract. Say, it was worse dan gettin' outter jail on bail. I guess wese wouldn't be married yet if it wasn't
fer Mr. Burton, wot's Miss Fannie's felly. 'E an' Miss Fannie, dey was bote near crazy 'bout our weddin', an' was fussin' 'bout it more dan dey is 'bout dere own.

Well, Mr. Burton, 'e sent fer me an' tells me t' come $t$ ' 'is chambers. 'E says t' me, says 'e, 'Chames,' 'e says, 'come dis evenin' t' me chambers. I calls me 'partments me chambers fer dis 'casion only,' says 'e, givin' me de wink, ''cause dis is er legal matter, an' in de ten years I've been 'mitted t' de bar,' says 'e, 'dis is de first time I ever had er case.'

## REMARKS

This passage, from the Chimmie Fadden stories of Mr. E. W. Townsend, represents a Bowery dialect of New York City. The author of the stories made greater effort than is usual with writers of dialect stories to record a considerable body of detail derived from direct observation. The student will see, however, that even here the dialect is sometimes only suggested, e.g., 1.9 ['go:m to me:k] in popular speech like this would be ['gona me:k] or ['gana me:k], and [hæd to], l. 12, would more likely be ['hætə], etc. It is suggested that students make a new transcription of the passage not merely on the basis of Mr. Townsend's text but taking account of features of illiterate dialect speech which Mr. Townsend has not recorded. Some of the respects in which this dialect differs from ordinary colloquial English are (a) the replacing of [ $\theta$ ] and $[\delta]$ by [ t ] and [d] respectively; (b) [d3] becoming [t5]; (c) loss of final dentals, as in [to:l], 1. 3, [græn], 1. 9; final [ n ] for [ n ] in the ending -ing, though this is very general in all colloquial speech; [w] for [ M ]. Writings like $t$ ' come for to come, $t$ ' me for to me, etc., are transcribed as [to k^m], [to mi], etc., though in this dialect there is practically no vowel after [t] in these phrases, and it might be omitted. The occasional spelling er, for example, dis is er legal matter, is probably intended to indicate only [ə]. The spelling why, 1. 2, is probably an inadvertence for dialect [war]. A feature of this dialect which is not recorded either in the conventional spelling of the passage or the phonetic transcription is the very strongly aspirated character of stop consonants, see above, $\S 13$.

## XVII

## бә vors

'oıl $\mathrm{\delta o}^{\prime}$ 'haus wəz 'stıl; fər aI brlitv oıl, iksept 'smd3ən end mar'self, wo 'nau ri'tarəd to 'rest. סə 'wnn 'kændl wəz 'dairy 'aut; бə 'rum woz 'ful әv 'mumlart. mai 'hat biit 'fast and ' $\theta$ rk; aI 'hard its ' robb. 'sadnlı it
5 'stud 'strl tu ən miks'presibl 'fillin ðət $\theta^{\prime}$ rild it ' $\theta$ rus ənd 'paist ət 'wans to mar 'hed ənd iks'tremitiz. ठo filin waz 'not lark an r'lektrik '§ok, bət it waz 'kwart әz 'Sarp, әz 'streind3, əz 'startlin; it 'æktid on mai
 ıo bat 'torpa, fram wits (or mitS) $\delta \varepsilon!$ wə 'nau 'samənd ənd 'forst tu 'werk. סеı 'rouz Iks'pektənt; 'aı ənd 'ıə 'weitid wall (or marl) $\delta ə$ 'fle 'kwivəd on mar 'bounz. "'wot (or $\mu \supset t$ ) əv (or həv) ju: 'hard? wot (or $\mu \supset t$ ) d (or də) ju: 'sir?" aıskt 'smdzən. ar 'sot 'nıঠ̈ı, bət 15 at 'hərd ə 'vois 'samweə (or 'sィmмєә) krai -

"'ou 'god! 'wot (or 'мət) Iz It?" ar 'gasspt.
ai 'mart әv (or həv) sed, "'werr (or 'мєər) iz It?"
 $20 \mathrm{In} \chi_{\partial}$ 'gaıdn; it 'did not kım aut әv $\gamma_{1}$ ' $ย$, nว! frəm andə бr $^{\prime}$ 'ə: $\theta$, nəı frəm ouva'hed. ai əd (or həd) 'hatd It -'weə (or 'мغə), a: 'wens (or 'mens), fər 'عvว (or 'ever) m'posibl to 'nou! ond it waz ðə vois əv a 'hjuimən 'bi:ip - ə 'noun, 'lavd, 'wel ri'membad 'vois 25 ' $\chi æ t$ әv 'edwəd 'feafæks 'rətSistə; ənd it spouk in 'pern ənd 'wou, 'waildlı, 'ıərılı, 'ə:dzəntlı.
"'ai әm 'kımin!" ar kraid, "'wert fo mi!! 'ou, ar wil 'kım!" aI 'flus to бə 'dəı, ənd 'lukt intə $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'pæ- }\end{aligned}$ sidz; it wəz 'da:k. aI 'ræn 'aut intə ðə 'gaıdn; it wəz 30 'vord.
"'weər (or 'мєər) 'a: ju:?" aI Iks'klermd.
бә 'hilz br'jond 'maif 'glen 'sent $\gamma_{I}$ 'ainss 'feintli bæk, "'weər (or 'меər) 'aı juı?" aı 'lisnd. خə 'wind 'said 'lou in бә 'fəız; 'ə:l wəz 'muələnd, 'lounlinis ənd 35 'midnart has.

## The Voice

All the house was still; for I believe all, except St. John and myself, were now retired to rest. The one candle was dying out; the room was full of moonlight. My heart beat fast and thick; I heard its throb. Suddenly it stood still to an inexpressible feeling that thrilled it through, and passed at once to my head and extremities. The feeling was not like an electric shock, but it was quite as sharp, as strange, as startling; it acted on my senses as if their utmost activity hitherto had been but torper, from which they were now summoned and forced to wake. They rose expectant; eye and ear waited while the flesh quivered on my bones.
"What have you heard? What do you see?" asked St. John. I saw nothing, but I heard a voice somewhere cry -
"Jane! Jane! Jane!" - nothing more.
"O God! what is it?" I gasped.
I might have said, "Where is it?" for it did not seem in the room, nor in the house, nor in the garden; it did not come out of the air, nor from under the earth, nor from overhead. I had heard it - where, or whence, for ever impossible to know! And it was the voice of a human being - a known, loved, wellremembered voice - that of Edward Fairfax Roches-
ter; and it spoke in pain and woe, wildly, eerily, urgently.
"I am coming!" I cried. "Wait for me! Oh, I will come!" I flew to the door and looked into the passage; it was dark. I ran out into the garden; it was void.
"Where are you?" I exclaimed.
The hills beyond Marsh Glen sent the answer faintly back, "Where are you?" I listened. The wind sighed low in the firs; all was moorland loneliness and midnight hush.

## REMARKS

This passage is adapted from Jones, Pronunciation of English, pp. 73-74. It is supposed to be standard British pronunciation in a careful conversational style. The passage is from Jane Eyre, Chapter XXXV. The only changes that have been made in Mr. Jones's notation have been the use of [r] for his [i], [ U$]$ for his [u], and $[\varepsilon]$ for his [e] to indicate respectively the slack qualities of the several sounds as short vowels. Mr. Jones regularly uses the symbol [e] for the vowel of rest, flesh, etc., and [e], he says, occurs in standard pronunciation only in the diphthong [eə], as in there, their [ $\delta$ ©o], etc. This latter sound is slightly lower (or in Mr. Jones's terminology, more open) than his [e], as in rest, set, etc. Since in this volume the same symbol, [ $\varepsilon$ ], has been used for the vowel of set and the vowel of their, the distinction made by Mr. Jones is not recorded in the above transcription. With this exception, the author thinks he has given a faithful reproduction of Mr. Jones's pronunciation. The accents are those given by Mr. Jones.

1. 2. [haus]. Mr. Jones records the diphthong regularly in this transcription as [av] and this accords with American pronunciation; but in Michaelis-Jones, A Phonetic Dictionary, the diphthong is given as [av].
[for]. The [r] here is intervocalic in context.
1. 4. The:d]. The sound [a:] is represented in our alphabet by [ $\mathrm{A}:$ ], but it seemed best to retain Mr. Jones's symbol for the sound, which he describes as half-open (that is, half-low), mixed (meaning the middle portions of the tongue), tense, unrounded.
1. 8. [stremdz]. In American pronunciation the vowel would be [er] or [et].
1. 9. [atmoust]. The first element of the diphthong is described by Mr. Jones as half-close (i.e., half-high), back, slack, rounded, and it therefore corresponds pretty exactly to [0] as this symbol is used in the present book. But it did not seem advisable to change it to [ 0 ], for Mr. Jones uses this symbol also, for a sound which he describes as open (i.e., low), back, slack, with slight lip rounding. The difference between his [o] and his [0] cannot be great, but in any case the first element of his [ou] must not be taken as meaning the sound represented in our alphabet by [o], but a sound nearer to [0].

## XVIII

## 'sanit

(a)
mat $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{W}}$ ar træveld in $\mathrm{\delta}_{\mathrm{o}}$ relmz ev gould, ənd menr gudli sterts ənd kindəmz sim; raund ment weston arləndz hæv ar bisn, sit f basdz in fialtı tu əpolo hould. off əv wın ward ekspæns hæd ar biın tould бət disp-braud hosmə ruld $\partial z$ hiz dimisn; jet did ai neva brit\% its pjua stri:n trl ar hasd t $\int$ æpmən spi:k aut laud ənd bould:
 men ə nju: plænit swimz intu hrz ken; o laik staut kortez men wiot iigel aiz his stæid ət $\partial$ ə pəsffik - ənd o:l hiz men lukt at itt $\Lambda$ 乞ə wrò ə warld səmaiz, sailənt əpən ə pirk in daırien.

## (b)

1. 2. go:ld.
1. 4. ho:ld.
1. 2. sterts.
1. 5. Ikspæns, bin, tolld.
1. 6. homm.
1. 8. boald.
1. 7. pjuə.
l. 14. derrien.
(c)
1. 3. westom.
1.4. baisdz.
1. 6. hommar.
1. 7. pjuı.
1. 8. hasd.
1. 11. ou, korstez.
1. 12. stæud.
1. 13. $\wedge$ ฮәェ, sэmaız.

## Sonnet

Much have I traveled in the realms of gold, And many goodly states and kingdoms seen; Round many western islands have I been, Which bards in fealty to Apollo hold. Oft of one wide expanse had I been told That deep-browed Homer ruled as his demesne; Yet did I never breathe its pure serene Till I heard Chapman speak out loud and bold:
Then felt I like some watcher of the skies
When a new planet swims into his ken;
Or like stout Cortez when with eagle eyes
He stared at the Pacific - and all his men
Looked at each other in a wild surmise,
Silent upon a peak in Darien.

## REMARKS

This sonnet, by Keats, is transcribed here as given in a Report of a Joint Committee representing the National Educational Association, the American Philological Association, and the Modern Language Association of America, on the Subject of a Phonetic English Alphabet, New York, 1904. The first version gives the sonnet "as read by an Englishman - a graduate of Oxford - whose utterance may be taken as fairly representing that of educated Londoners"
(p. 38). The set of variant readings under (b) are those differences from the pronunciations of (a) which occurred in the reading of the same sonnet by "a New Englander - a member of the Harvard faculty." The readings under (c) are those differences from (b) which occurred in the reading of the sonnet by "a Michigan man some time resident in New York."

1. 1 [ar]. In the phonetic alphabet used in the above report, the diphthong known as 'long $i$,' is regularly transcribed with [a] as its first element. This transcription is retained in the present passage, though the author's observation is that the vowel is ordinarily [a].
[gould]. Note the diphthongal character of long vowels in the Englishman's pronunciation as compared with that of (b) and (c).
1.6. [hosmə]. The second element of the diphthong as recorded here is the vowel of much, one, etc.
2. 12. [stæ:d]. The Report, p. 21, recognizes the similarity of the vowel in this word to [ $\varepsilon$ :]. Might not this word have been transcribed ['ste:ad]?
1. 14. [әрən]. So recorded in all three pronunciations, which means that it was pronounced by all three readers without stress. But it might be pronounced [o'pon].

XIX

## wind ænd san

(a)

## Southern British

ઈə nort wind ənd $\delta ə$ san was dis'pjurtin witf woz

 terk orf (h)rz klouk §ud bi kən'sidəd 'strongə סən $\boldsymbol{\delta I}_{1}$
 mos hi: blus, $\delta ə$ mə! 'klouslı did $\delta ə$ 'trævlə fould (h)ız klouk ə'raund him; ənd ət lasst бә nə:日 wind gerv $\Lambda p$


 'strongər əv סə tur.
(b)

## Northern British

 stronger, men a 'travlas kemm ə'log rapt in a worm
 las terk of hrz klork Sud bi kon'sidad 'strongea ${ }^{\text {万on }}$

 hiz klork a'raund him; ənd ət last $\partial \theta$ nor $\theta$ wind gerv


 'strongəa əv бə tur.
(c)

## American English

 wəz $\delta ə$ 'stuongist, Men a 'tıævalax kem a'lo!
 'tuævlas terk of iz kout fast $_{\mathrm{ad}}$ br kən'sidəad 'stromgar
 bat бә maı I bljus, бә məı 'klousli бә 'tuævlas 'fouldrd

 to Sain aut hat), ənd in ə fju 'mormənts $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{2}$ 'tuævloa ro tuk of iz klouk. so $\boldsymbol{\partial}^{2}$ nox日 wind waz ə'blardjd ta


## Wind and Sun

The North Wind and the Sun were disputing which was the stronger, when a traveller came along wrapped in a warm cloak. They agreed that the one who first made the traveller take off his cloak should be considered stronger than the other. Then the North Wind blew with all his might, but the more he blew, the more closely did the traveller fold his cloak around him; and at last the North Wind gave up the attempt. Then the Sun shone out warmly, and immediately the traveller took off his cloak; and so the North Wind was obliged to confess that the Sun was the stronger of the two.

## REMARKS

These three versions of the fable of the Sun and Wind are taken from a pamphlet, The Principles of the International Phonetic Association, pp. 20-22, published as a supplement to the Maître Phonétique, Sept.-Oct., 1912. They are supposed to represent "the average pronunciation of educated persons in each case," the first Southern English in England, the second Northern English in England, the third American English "for New York State and the central portion of the United States." They are presented here for comparative study, the most interesting conclusion from such study probably being the close similarity to be observed between American English and British Northern English. The version in American English is in some respects a travesty. It is throughout on a more colloquial level than the other two versions, but besides is needlessly changed in other details. In the first sentence, "as to which was the strongest" is dialectal American usage, not that of "educated persons." Similar uncalled-for changes are "began to shine out hot" for "shone out warmly," and "in a few moments" for "immediately." The phonetic details of the version of American English are also open to criticism in some respects. The sound of $\mathbf{r}$ is not the same in all positions; the vowel of the before other would
not be [e]; blew would be [blu:], not [blju:]; the diphthong in might is [mart], not [mart]; the vowel of strongest, stronger is short, not long; and the diphthongal character of [e:] and [o:] is less marked and general than the transcription would lead one to suppose. The transcriptions also make a distinction between British and American use in the vowel of wind, which, etc., which is supposed to be slightly lower in American than in British use, being high slack in British pronunciation and between high slack and high-mid slack in American usage. The reality of this distinction seems very doubtful, and the author has disregarded it in his versions of the transcriptions. For the vowel of words like bird, hurt, when the r is not pronounced, the symbol [A:] has been substituted for [ a ]. Note the Northern British use of [ a$]$ where Southern British and American have [æ].

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s.


Krapp, Geotge.
PE
The pronunciation of
1137 .K8. standard English in America.


[^0]:    1 "She [one of the characters in a Mississippi Valley story who. has returned home after having been 'cultured up' in the East] did not say 'charrmed' like an alarm clock breaking out. She did not trundle his name [Orson Carver] like a wheelbarrow. Tudie rolled the ' $r$ ' on his eardrums as with a drumstick, and by contrast the sound came to him as: 'Misterr Carrverr comes from Harrvarrd. He calls it Harvad.'" - From "A as in Father," by Rupert Hughes, In a Little Town, p. 364.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ See New English Dictionary, under contemplate.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Babbitt, Dialect Notes, I, 463.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Die Neveren Sprachen, II, 449 (1895); see also Dialect Notes, I, 319-323 (1894).

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Though I am informed by Mr．F．L．Mott that［＇pre：re］is a pioneer pronunciation for prairie，in Iowa，in the speech of persons who cannot be supposed to have been influenced by refined analogies．

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Webster, Dissertations (1789), pp. 153 ff. It seems to be less general in the South, than it is in New England, whence it has spread to all sections of the country.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Read, Dialect Notes, III, 524 (1911).

